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These proceedings included the following papers: "The Language of Interdisciplinary Programs or 'What Do You Mean By That?'" (Ezzell, Turner); "When Mothers Become Students: Impact on Children and the Family System" (Burns, Gabrick); "Multi-Discipline Theorizing Meets the Blackboard: The Evolving Discourse Community" (Currey); "Streaming Media: Focus on the Learner" (Meacham); "Changing Student Faces: Adult Learners from Sponsored Workplace Programs" (Oaks); "Preparing Immigrant Adults for Post-secondary Education Through On-line Courses: Their IT (Information Technology) Access" (Diaz); "The Role of Conscious Reflection in Experiential Learning" (Coulter); "Building Online Learning Communities" (Resta et al.); "Born to be Wired" (Stewart et al.); "The Digital Divide: Adult Learners in Cyberspace" (Flowers, Woodruff); "The Changing Face of Theological Education for Adult Learners" (Hoy); "The Eye of Contemplation: Integrating Spiritual Empiricism with Adult Teaching/Learning" (Trott, Paige); "The Trouble with Systematic Racism" (Coffman et al.); "Service Learning in Adult Accelerated Programs" (Mitchell); "Online Adult Learning and Emotional Intelligence: Oxymorons?" (Hill, Rivera); "Inside the Circle of a Distance Learning Community" (Terry); "Teaching the Oppressor to be Silent: Conflicts in the 'Democratic' Classroom" (Cale, Huber); "Redefining Diversity Through Technology: Preparing Global Citizens and Building Inclusive Communities" (Caesar, MacCalla); "Online Conferencing as a Tool for Graduate Learning" (Payne et al.); "The Adult Learner in Academic Midlife: Persistence, Support and Integration in a Distance Learning Doctoral Education Program" (Stein, Glazer); "The Effect of Learning Styles on Success

in Online Education" (Rothenberger, Long); "Adult Women Graduate Students: Imposters in the Academy" (Studdard); "The Changing Face of Adult Learning: A South African Perspective" (Thomas, Wessels); "Are We Being Transformed? High Achieving 'Imposters' Building Collegiality in an Upper-Division Seminar on Adult Education" (Lauderdale, Lantard); "A Conceptual Framework for Examining Factors which Influence Adult Learners' Use and Learning of Internet Technologies" (Chao); "The Texas Adult Education Credential Model" (Falk); "Standardizing Texas Adult Educator Professional Development: Adult Education New Teacher Project" (Jones); "The Good Fight: Nineteenth Century American External Degree Programs" (Pittman); "Faculty as Adult Learners: A Case Study of a System of Professional Development and Evaluation for Adjunct Faculty" (Turner, McCauley); "Factors Influencing Non-participation of African-American Male Inmates in Correctional Educational Programs" (Thornton). Most articles include references, some extensive. (MO)

Adult Higher Education Alliance

Alliance/ACE Conference 2001 Proceedings

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October 10-13, 2001
Austin Marriott at the Capitol
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AUTHOR(S)	TITLE OF PRESENTATION
Martha Ezzell and Sandie Turner	<u>The Language of Interdisciplinary Programs or "What Do You Mean By That?"</u>
Linda Burns and Chrys Gabrich	<u>When Mothers Become Students: Impact on Children and the Family System</u>
Sue Currey	<u>Multi-Discipline Theorizing Meets the Blackboard: The Evolving Discourse Community</u>
Martha Meacham	<u>Streaming Media: Focus on the Learner</u>
Susan Oaks	<u>Changing Student Faces: Adult Learners from Sponsored Workplace Programs</u>
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Sandie Turner and Coralyn McCauley	<u>Faculty as Adult Learners: A Case Study of a System of Professional Development and Evaluation for Adjunct Faculty</u>

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THE LANGUAGE OF INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAMS

OR

"WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY THAT"

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We began our interest in the language of interdisciplinary programs because of the interpretation of a metaphor. The metaphor was, "You are on the path to rhetorical sophistication." It had been e-mailed to a colleague from her dissertation advisor. The colleague was offended. We argued about the interpretation. Upon asking a rhetorician to interpret the metaphor we learned that it was high praise. We thought about the differences in perceptions and began discussing language problems in interdisciplinary programs. The discussion was quite intriguing because we describe our graduate program, Professional Leadership, as interdisciplinary. If we who, heretofore, had considered ourselves denizens of interdisciplinarity differed in our interpretations of the metaphor, what exactly might that mean in terms of miscommunication with students and other faculty, particularly our adjunct faculty who are not as immersed as we in the daily appraisal of our program.

This conversation led to a number of questions about our program and others like it. For example, consider the following:

- What do we mean by an interdisciplinary program? How is the term defined?
- Are we too superficial in our consideration of interdisciplinarity? And too unconscious of what we are doing?
- How are our students advantaged or disadvantaged?

Needless to say, these questions informed our paper.

We will trace our journey of considering the meaning of interdisciplinary programs and assessment of quality of such programs especially at the graduate level by first looking at our academic stories and experience of interdisciplinary thinking in Parts I, II, and III. In Parts IV, V and VI we will give examples of how the question of the meaning of interdisciplinary studies comes up at our college in Graduate Division and Program-level meetings and in beginning questioning of students and faculty in our program. In Part VII we turn to what the Association of Integrative Studies (AIS) says regarding definitions and quality assessment of such programs at the undergraduate level. Finally, in part VIII, we will summarize the implications of

what we have discovered through this journey.

I. Martha's Academic Story

I attended college before the advent of interdisciplinary courses or programs. I had a double major, Speech & Drama and Psychology. My minors consisted of Philosophy, Sociology and French. No one labeled these combinations of majors and minors as interdisciplinary. As an undergraduate, I learned the language, the philosophy, the history and the procedures of each discipline in which I took a class. The integration of this knowledge was up to me. Although my parents gently prodded me about what I might do with this panoply of knowledge, I knew it fit together somehow. I just didn't know what I might do with it.

I taught in the public schools on a temporary certificate for a number of years and found that this display of subjects allowed me to teach an unbelievable array of junior high and high school courses ... Speech, Sociology, French, Economics, English, Social Studies, History and direct the class play! I was interdisciplinary, but the schools weren't.

In 1973, more than 10 years after my BA, I began my MS degree in the Department of Communication at the University of Pittsburgh. Speech had become Communication. Communication draws from psychology, sociology, journalism, film studies, philosophy and bits and pieces from other disciplines. It is an interdisciplinary discipline. Again learning the language was important. It was clear that the primary aim of the degree was to become more specialized in the field of communication and eventually, to move on to the doctorate.

I immediately moved on to Ph.D studies in Rhetoric, but stopped out and returned a number of years later. The curriculum was designed to develop "experts" in the field. My course of study now had some identified interdisciplinary courses, *The Rhetoric of Science, Reading Film, and Rhetorical Criticism*.

I took classes in the School of Public Health, because my dissertation was on the rhetoric of health policy. More interdisciplinarity, but not labeled as such.

II. Sandie's Academic Story

My discipline is Political Science. My bachelors, masters, and doctorate are all in political science. My earning of these three degrees took place during the 1960's, the 1970's and the 1980's. My undergraduate political science courses at the University of Washington included comparative politics, a year of political philosophy, studies of the three branches of government, elections, and state and local government. Political behavior and survey research was on the rise in the 60's so I was introduced to those subjects also.

Entering graduate school at the University of Wisconsin in 1966 I encountered a new world of Political Science with courses focused on Executive power and leadership (we read case studies of Presidents and Barber's *Presidential Character* book), on urban politics, on revolution and nation-building in the developing world, and on political parties. Because my particular interest was urban studies I was already choosing a newer area in the discipline which had a more interdisciplinary focus. After getting my Master's I worked in the U.S. and Africa and when I returned to complete doctoral-level graduate coursework in the 70's one of my comprehensive exam fields was Political Psychology. More and more hybrid or mixed specializations were evident in the Department at the University of Wisconsin. A Women's Studies program was established and African studies now included an African-American perspective. My minor was in interdisciplinary (so-labeled) studies—I took Urban economics from an economist team- teaching with a political scientist, I took Urban anthropology from an anthropologist and urban sociology from a sociologist. So I learned from them other methods of research and ways of asking questions and viewing data and documents.

III. Academic stories and a consciousness of Interdisciplinary perspectives

Several issues concerning interdisciplinary studies are evident in these academic histories. As reported in Conrad, Haworth and Miller (1993), the 70's saw the birth of interdisciplinary studies and the growth of these programs has extended and increased into the present. This is clear from our experiences of formal education in the 60's, 70's, 80's and more recently as faculty. We were both very aware during our education of disciplines and the differing perspectives of disciplines. This language was used and courses were identifiable as discipline related. As we contemplate our undergraduate experience, we believe we were able to construct an integrated, interdisciplinary course of study because we wanted to integrate what we were learning. We expected to be the ones to pull courses together if that happened. It was not the faculty's responsibility. Our graduate work was more interdisciplinary, but again, it was left up to the student to do a great deal of the integration. This was possible in part because the different perspectives offered were clearly identified as different disciplines. This terminology was used with fairly specific referents.

IV. Interdisciplinary studies and the Graduate Division

Although we have become a division in the past two years we are now on the path of becoming a school, attempting to develop a doctoral program and seeking university status. Currently we offer master's degrees in Education (2), Management (1), Nursing (2), Professional Leadership (1), and one Master's of Science in Nursing Leadership degree offered jointly from the Nursing and Professional Leadership programs. It is our vision to create an integrated, interdisciplinary Ph.D. in leadership with concentrations in the existing master's programs. Surely this is no easy task.

We envision a core curriculum with a focus on the specialty of the student's choice. The concerns that arise from this plan have to do with practical problems such as team teaching in the core, the selection of courses to be taught in the interdisciplinary core, the core courses to be taught from a disciplinary perspective, financial arrangements for team taught courses, etc. Additional problems of more substance revolve around concerns of coherence of the program, integration of aspects of each discipline into the core courses,

the degree to which we explicitly address interdisciplinary study, the level at which we expressly examine language and methodology of different disciplines.

We expect the task to be arduous, but because we believe that the world is complex, problems enigmatic, solutions manifold, and students to be searching for programs that extend their abilities, expand their opportunities and enlarge their worlds. We think it is important work. We also think that collaboration is stimulating and an unsurpassed way of working. Thus, regardless of the difficulty, we will persist in the endeavor.

V. Academic programs and Interdisciplinary studies

Since the 1980's we have been teaching in what we have labeled as "interdisciplinary" programs for adult students at two small colleges. The designers of these degrees echo the thought that the world is interdisciplinary (*U.S. News and World Report*, April 9, 2001, p. 62) and since adult learners want learning to be relevant as well as to integrate experience and formal education it only makes sense to design degrees which draw readings and faculty from business, education, sociology, communications, political science, etc. We have been very comfortable in this world since our graduate education was at a time when our chosen disciplines were embracing new specializations. Yet it is beginning to be clear to us that we are in a different place than our students by having clear attachments and identifications to disciplines. That is, we recognize when a new perspective is being offered or when perspectives might clash theoretically or in the assumptions they are based on because we were trained to recognize and know perspectives. If students have always received their education as mixtures of perspectives, how do they understand the worlds and the words of disciplines and interdisciplines?

VI. Faculty and Student Views on disciplines and interdisciplinary programs

This Spring we asked some of our faculty and some of our students and alumni what their understanding of discipline and interdisciplinary are. Though by no means a scientific or even large sampling, the answers were of interest. The faculty claimed disciplines such as Communications, Psychology, Political Science, Sociology, and Education. One faculty member has a professional degree, the master's in Social Work. One faculty member present at the meeting claimed a newer degree in Applied Behavioral Science. Looking at the list we discovered we were perhaps not so interdisciplinary as we had believed. However, we were all able to identify several concepts and some vocabulary that were particular to our identified discipline and that could lead to miscommunication among ourselves and between ourselves and our students.

When some students and alumni were asked what they thought about the interdisciplinary nature of our program –Professional Leadership—they answered variously "I never thought about it", or "I liked it. It helps me solve problems.", or mentioned that some students were confused by team-taught courses. Informal questioning of students and

alumni certainly suggests that something is missing in how material is being presented and that we need to be more intentional about what our words mean.

VII. Ensuring Quality

As we pondered our questions we sought sources outside of our program. One helpful resource on the definition of interdisciplinary programs was the Association of Integrative Studies (AIS).

AIS in a report entitled *Accreditation Criteria for Interdisciplinary Studies in General Education*, (<http://www.muc.muohio.edu/>, 3/30/2000) defines interdisciplinary as "involvement of more than one disciplinary perspective and explicit attention to the question of integration." AIS goes on to state that the most consistently named problem in interdisciplinary education is coherence. The report cites James Ratcliff (1977) in defining coherence. He has suggested that coherence has to do with connecting "knowledge, languages, and methodologies" across a program. Ratcliff further asserts that coherence means integration of knowledge and skills and blurring disciplinary boundaries.

Thus, in AIS definition, we have coherence and integration, language and methodologies of more than one discipline and blurring the lines between disciplines. It seems to us that attention to integration and blurring the lines between disciplines is problematic. If we attend to the integration of disciplines we are not blurring the lines between disciplines. Rather, we are pointing out how different perspectives can be used together or chosen between to create better outcomes.

After being somewhat dissatisfied with the definition of what seemed to be our most reliable source, we inquired into quality standards of such programs. AIS again appeared to be the authority. According to the AIS report mentioned above, "There is no authorized accrediting body for interdisciplinary education." This organization is currently centered on undergraduate core or general education courses. We could find no similar associations for graduate studies. The Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) requested that AIS develop appropriate criteria for accreditation for interdisciplinary education. The criteria should be considered "state-of-the-art counsel."

The AIS report presents five categories: goals, curriculum, teaching and learning, and administration. The AIS task force states criteria concerning effectiveness and raises questions pertinent to quality in each category. Not every statement of effectiveness or question of quality is pertinent to graduate education. Therefore, we have summarized the relevant AIS criteria in the following manner:

- Interdisciplinary programs must develop a statement of goals which explicitly refer to the interdisciplinary and integrative elements of the program. These goals must be communicated to students, faculty, staff and administration. The program must facilitate students' competence in comparing, contrasting and integrating perspectives from different disciplines. Programs must be monitored systematically and modified when necessary in order to meet the stated goals.
- There must be a plan for developing a curriculum focusing on integration of the interdisciplinary courses in terms of multiple modes of inquiry, intellectual skills and connecting learning.
- Integration is a product of both teaching and learning. Integration must be explained. Faculty must select strategies which model and promote

interdisciplinarity. One way of doing this is to focus explicitly on integration in class, in reading and learning activities. Students must be involved in in-class activities and in assignments that require active participation in making connections and promoting integrative thinking. Learning and teaching must be evaluated in a systematic way on a regular basis.

VII. So what? Some concluding thoughts

After thinking through this material it is clear that we want to spend time with our faculty and students thinking through the ways in which our program—and the new ones we are designing as part of graduate education at Carlow—is interdisciplinary. In the Professional Leadership program we believe we have spent lots of time on the issue of coherence, the problem identified by AIS as a usual weakness of interdisciplinary programs. We believe that the use of secondary sources and the focus on an integrated curriculum, however, may have led to less emphasis than might be useful to issues of disciplines, perspectives, and explicit definition of the term interdisciplinary. We wish to become more intentional about this. Just team teaching or just having students take 2 courses of this and 2 of that does not guarantee that interdisciplinary thinking has occurred. These are issues we have been discussing at the level of the Graduate Division. We want to become more intentional about discussing these issues with our students and faculty and being aware of missed communication or misunderstanding around these issues. We want to improve our skills of teaching so we are more intentionally integrating perspectives not blurring perspectives or disciplines.

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When Mothers Become Students:

Impact on Children and the Family System

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Introduction

Over the past few decades the number of adult students, especially women, enrolled in college has dramatically increased. The following factors have contributed to this change:

- Aging of America: As the baby boomers age and life expectancy increases, the average age in our society has risen. According to the U.S. Bureau of Statistics, the average age in 1994 was 34 years, in 1995 the average age rose to 35.5 years, and it is projected that by the year 2035, the average age will increase to 39 years old (Hansen, 1998).
- Global economy: The demands of a global economy require a more intelligent workforce. Therefore more workers are returning to the classroom for additional training and degrees.
- Increased number of women in the workforce: Given the increase in single parents, more women are also entering the workforce to provide for their families. In order for women to compete more effectively in such a competitive job market, they are seeking additional schooling.
- Technology in the workplace: The increased use of technology in the workplace has caused many adults to seek training to increase their ability to use the technology their jobs now require.

Given these four factors, institutions of higher education have seen the "graying" of American college students. As adult students enter the college classroom, their role demands are expanded. In addition to pressures from their family, spouse, home and employers, adult learners add new demands from their college professors. The entrance or return to college at a later stage in life represents a significant shift in priorities. However, it is unlikely that they are the only ones in their families to make changes. A basic principle of family systems theory suggests that a change in one family member precipitates change in other family members. As stated by the classical family theorist, Murray Bowen, "when one family member makes such an individuality move, then another will do the same" (Bowen, 1978).

Much research has been done on the stresses and barriers that adult students face when deciding to return to college, however little research has been done on the effects on the family that follow a parent's decision to enroll in college.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify changes in the family system that occurs when the parent enrolls in college. More specifically, our study plans to investigate ways that being a student affects the role of a parent, as well as the ways in which parenting affects performance

in the college classroom. Our research project was conducted at a small, private women's college; therefore the focus of this research is on mothers and their families.

Methodology

Our study was conducted at Carlow College, Pittsburgh PA. which is a small, private women's college. The focus of our research was on mothers as college students with school aged children. Our study addressed the following three research questions:

1. How much conflict does a mother experience between her responsibilities at home and at school?
2. How does a mother's enrollment in college impact her husband or partner's involvement in the family?
3. How does a mother's enrollment in college influence her relationship with her school aged-children?

The research was carried out in two stages. First, qualitative data was collected through in-depth interviews with eight women whose ages ranged from the late twenties to mid forties. Five of the women were white and three were African-American. Their family size ranged from one to four school-aged children. Their marital status varied: two were married, two were single, and four were divorced. Also, all the women were enrolled in undergraduate degree programs at Carlow College while working. Five women held full time jobs, while three women worked part time.

Our interviews revealed that adult students have the expected difficulties of balancing the responsibilities of family, work, and college, but at the same time, they experience positive changes that emerge from their enrollment in school, particularly with respect to their children.

In order to study these effects more systematically, we developed a questionnaire that was distributed to students who were mothers of school-aged children and who were enrolled in evening continuing education courses at Carlow College in the 1999 fall term. The questionnaire included closed-ended questions covering demographic and other relevant information, Likert-scale questions using a 10 point scale to measure the participants' assessments of their experiences, and open-ended questions that gave participants an opportunity to describe their experiences. A total of 100 questionnaires were returned.

Description of Participants:

All 100 subjects were enrolled in undergraduate, adult-degree programs at Carlow College. Demographic characteristics of the women surveyed indicated that 84% of the women ranged in age from 30 to 49 years old. 97% of the subjects worked outside the home, and 86% of them worked full time.

Their marital status varied: 63% were married, 24% were divorced or separated, and 12% were single. All the subjects had at least one child between the age 6 to 18 years of age living at home. The family size ranged from 33% with one child, 53% with two children, and 14% with three or more children. The average number of children per family was 1.88.

When questioned about childcare arrangements while attending school, the subjects reported that they used multiple caretakers: 62% of the children were cared for by their fathers, 40% by other family members, 38% children stayed by themselves, 12% by babysitters, and 4% by daycare or after-school programs. Despite the subjects need to use a variety of caretakers,

when asked about the level of difficulty arranging childcare, 69% of the mother reported having no difficulty, 28% had some difficulty and only 3% reported extreme difficulty arranging childcare.

Subjects were also questioned about their academic performance in college. When asked how satisfied they were with their level of academic performance: 74% of the subjects reported high satisfaction, 25% had moderate satisfaction and 1% reported low satisfaction with her academic performance. The high level of satisfaction with academic performance may be reflected in the subjects' college grades, 80% of the subjects reported earning grade point averages 3.00/4.00 and above.

Results

Conflict between School and Family

There is no doubt that the adult student with children has significant conflict at times between school and family responsibilities. When we asked participants to rate the amount of conflict they experienced on a ten point scale, with one indicating very low conflict and ten indicating extremely high conflict, we found that only 16% reported low conflict (ratings of 1 - 3), while 33% reported high conflict (ratings of 8 - 10). The remaining 51% indicated moderate conflict (ratings of 4 - 7). Not surprisingly, descriptions of this conflict emphasized a lack of time to do everything. Some noted that they have to miss family events, others are concerned that they are not maintaining previous standards with respect to domestic chores such as cooking and housekeeping. Interestingly, based on their self-reports of high grades and satisfactory class preparation, it appears that school responsibilities often have priority.

We also considered the marital status of adult students with respect to the level of conflict they experienced. Again, it is not surprising that the women who are married experience less conflict between school and family responsibilities. Single and divorced mothers have greater conflict between these two worlds, most likely because they do not have the back-up of another full-time parent.

Impact on Husband or Partner

We were also interested in the extent to which husbands, ex-husbands or partners became more involved with their children as a consequence of the mother's enrollment in school. Our participants were asked to rate this change on a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 indicating no change and 10 indicating very significant change. Surprisingly many of the mothers do not perceive that their husbands or partners have made many changes. Forty-five percent indicate low change (ratings of 1 - 3), 31% indicate moderate change (ratings of 4 - 7), and only 23% indicate significant changes with respect to their husband's involvement with the children. Those who reported changes in their husband's involvement usually noted that they spend more time driving the children, watching them, and helping them with schoolwork. We do not know, of course, whether the lack of change in a sizable number of the fathers is due to their previous involvement with the children or to the mothers' willingness to just absorb more responsibilities.

We were somewhat surprised to find that the husbands of the women in our study are, for the most part, not college graduates. Only 24% of the husbands have college degrees. Therefore the mother's experience of completing a college degree will be especially important to these families, as they will be in better positions to be informed about the college process when their children are college-age. In sociological terms, the mother's college education will increase the *social capital* within the families. James Coleman (1988) introduced the concept of social

capital in studying school achievement. Social capital provides norms, values, expectations, and information that may contribute to choices that children will make in the future.

Impact on Children

The mothers were asked to describe both positive and negative ways in which their enrollment in college had affected their children. Interestingly, the participants provided many more positive examples than negative ones. Many mothers talked about their importance as role models for their children and noted that the children were seeing the value of an education. Some noted that their children were more inclined to study themselves. Others said that their children respected them more and took on more responsibilities.

The negative effects of the mothers' enrollment in college nearly all center on their not having enough time with their children or missing school activities when they are in class. Several mothers noted that they tended to be too tired or may more easily lose patience with their children when they are with them. There is no doubt that even with many positive consequences of pursuing a higher degree, the adult student does pay a price.

We asked specifically whether the mothers noticed changes in their children's performance or attitudes toward school. Forty-four percent report that they have observed changes in their children and almost all the changes described are positive. Many mothers said that the children are more interested in doing well in school and are more excited about learning. Some noted that they have had more conversations with their children about college and that some children are now more interested in attending college themselves. One mother pointed out that she and her children compare grades and another reported that her son is striving to get as many A grades as his mom.

Finally, an interesting effect on the parent-child relationship that emerges from a mother's enrollment in college is the extent to which children provide assistance to their mothers. Nearly half of the mothers in our study confirm that their children sometimes help them with their schoolwork. Many note that their children are especially helpful when it comes to computer skills and math problems. Others say that their children help them to prepare for exams, proofread papers, listen to presentations, and assist with posters and cover pages. We can only imagine how helping mom get through her college courses might boost a child's self-esteem.

Conclusion

This study analyzed changes in the family system that occur when mothers enroll in college. We discussed the conflicts between school and family responsibilities that mothers experience. We also described the changes in fathers or partners' behaviors regarding their children. Finally, we analyzed the positive and negative ways in which mothers' enrollment in college affects their school-aged children.

This research project focused on mothers' perceptions of changes that occur in their families while they attended college. An intriguing follow-up study could interview spouses and children of women in college. It would be interesting to compare the family's responses with the results of the mothers in this study. Much has been written about the many stresses that adults face when enrolling in college, and we have just begun to examine the additional stresses and positive changes occur in the family systems of adult learners.

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Multi-Discipline Theorizing Meets the Blackboard:

The Evolving Discourse Community

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As a new teacher many years ago, I remember relishing the moments when I wrote on the blackboard. There was something satisfying about exerting my consciousness on that hazy, gray writing space. I loved the grainy, imperfect surface and the powdery residue that floated around my laboring hand. I found something of myself as I wrote on the blackboard.

Today I work with my students on a different kind of blackboard, one stored on a mysterious server somewhere. There is no grainy surface and no powdery residue. My writing space has changed. Can my students and I learn to comfortably assert our conscious selves onto this electronic writing space?

What is this space? How do we define it?

Our electronic writing space is a multi-dimensional environment that facilitates our ways of knowing. The asynchronous virtual community, powered by software tools such as Blackboard, raises old questions about the nature of discourse. In this virtual environment, from a rhetorical theoretical perspective, we observe an intersection of oral and written communication assuming the guise of oral group communication. The technology lurks large in the background, shaping the nature of the message. The technology not only shapes the learning space; it *is* the learning space.

By technologizing the word, we shape the writing space, creating a secondary orality (Ong *Orality* 123). Like the script of a TV sitcom delivered under the guise of spontaneous orality, our electronic discourse is dependent on print for existence. Our asynchronous blackboard, in true postmodern fashion, wraps and warps the dimensions of writing, reading, oral communication, technology, and time as we persist in our efforts to teach and learn in our virtual community.

Lester Faigley identifies the Blackboard discussion as a "hybrid form of discourse, something between oral and written, where the conventions of turn-taking and topical coherence are altered" (168). The complexity of our writing space is our slippery slope. Writes Faigley, "Because the subject is the locus of overlapping and competing discourses, it is a temporary stitching together of a series of often contradictory subject positions" (9). Ambiguity, in this virtual space, is present because of the ever-changing self. Our multi-dimensional space provides us with different ways of examining the world. How inviting does the adult student find our electronic writing space as it masquerades as oral group communication?

The tension between oral and written communication is no better expressed than by Plato in the *Phaedrus*, when he rejects writing as a worthwhile pursuit, bemoaning the demise of memory accompanied by a greater reliance on the written word and a fading oral culture. We note that ironically it is only through written discourse that we today contemplate Plato's excursion into this debate. How would Plato receive our Blackboard where we write under the pretense of being oral?

Our electronic writing space is also a place where we learn to know our context and ourselves. Basic to our discussion are the foundation of language and the power of the word. Symbolic language

provides a way for knowing the world. "Postmodern theory decisively rejects the primacy of consciousness and instead has consciousness originating in language," writes Faigley (9). "Whenever language is the principal medium of communication," comments Neil Postman, "—especially language controlled by the rigors of print—an idea, a fact, a claim is the inevitable result. . . . language is the instrument guiding one's thought" (Amusing Ourselves 50). One student comments, "I know what I know by what I write." Another says, "I write who I am." Still another observes, "Language is my way of knowing the world." We do, as Ong says, write our consciousness (178).

In a broader sense, writing shapes culture, allowing us to express over time our relationships to the past, present and future. Writing in our electronic writing space is further complicated by the interrelationship of language and technology. Postman continues, "The clearest way to see a culture is to attend to its tools for conversation" (Amusing Ourselves 8). From more than thirty years ago, Marshall McLuhan's voice in *The Medium is the Message* reminds us, "Societies have always been shaped more by the nature of the media by which men communicate than by the content of the communication" (McLuhen and Fiore 8). Postman concludes, "Each medium, like language itself, classifies the world for us, sequences it, frames it, enlarges it, reduces it, argues a case for what the world is like" (Conscientious Objections 33)

Our electronic writing space is a place where the reader-speaker-writer relationship blurs. The writer has the difficult task of attempting to replicate the subtleties of the spoken word. The spoken word has the clear advantage of conveying meaning within a context. The whole situation contributes meaning in oral communication. It is an existential process. The writer is not so fortunate and must labor to only approach the same precision. In the purest sense, the writer imagines the audience and writes to that audience. In a virtual environment, the writer may have significantly more information available about audience than the writer of a book, let's say. But the gap is still present. The quest for establishing a substantially shared meaning is complicated by the reader-writer relationship and is further complicated by the underlying technology. Ong reminds us that readers and writers are both "masked," more so than the oral communicator and their audience. "Writing," says Ong, "is itself an indirection. Direct communication by script is impossible. . . . Writing, alone, however, will never bring us truly beneath to the actuality" ("Writer's Audience" 74)

There is, Ede and Lunsford remind us, an audience addressed whose values, beliefs, and expectations can be approached. Ede and Lunsford further identify an "audience invoked," essentially a fiction of the writer. They argue that Ong may distinguish speaking and writing too much, affirming that both are rhetorical acts. In the online discourse community, the distinction between the two is even more blurred. Clearly fellow students in an online discussion group assume the roles of the addressed audience. Ede and Lunsford remind us of a "dynamic duality of the process of reading and writing, whereby writers create readers and readers create writers. In the meeting of these two lies meaning, lies communication" (92). The reader is not passive but a participant, imposing will on the dimensions of time and technology, and our adult students in this dialogue become writer, speaker, and reader, actively engaged with others in the making of consciousness.

How do we work in our electronic writing space?

Let us return to the multi-dimensional aspects of the asynchronous online discourse community; the dimensions of writing, oral communication, technology, and time. The writing dimension presents itself as a written group discussion. To be effective it requires many of the same theoretical concepts as face-to-face oral group discussion; community building, norming, conflict management, and valid decision-making practices. Practicing the technology of writing, however,

allows students to wrestle with ideas, to shape them and query them more completely before sharing them with the community. Thus the response is shaped by the technology and may be somewhat different from what it would be in oral group discussion. Once written and the reply button engaged, the offering enters the realm of oral group discussion, often warped by a time delay and certainly imprinted by the technology.

As in all symbolic communication, there is never perfection of thought. All communication requires the symbolic encoding and decoding with the ever-present gap between the two. The picture in the virtual community is further clouded as encoding and decoding takes place in an electronic environment. There is no perfect way of knowing the symbols. We can only approximate. The virtual discourse community offers every opportunity for miscommunication...the imprecision of symbolic language, the absence of nonverbal communication, the fragility of the technology, and the potential aberration introduced by the passage of time.

And what are the nuts and bolts for engaging students?

The online community is a social environment. We teachers must learn to facilitate an interpersonal arena rich with humor while focusing on the task of knowledge construction. Students should have opportunities to socialize and should recognize and be able to embrace essentials skills required for learning.

We need to fully develop our virtual coaching skills to engage students in the process of knowing self, knowing others, and making meaning. In the cyber- environment, it is our responsibility to facilitate as students learn to navigate the technology. We must also focus on writing as a way of knowing, helping students to better understand the mechanism of writing, going beyond mastery of fundamental writing skills.

Finally, our students in our virtual community require a fundamental knowledge of group communication theory and practice. Despite the fact that they don't see each other face to face, their virtual team will require that they function as a group. Skill-building is essential to attaining success as a virtual team.

This presenter's session incorporates a number of exercises to help attendees explore what happens to discourse when oral and written discourse communities merge in cyberspace. The presenter will also facilitate a practical discussion of the skill-building necessary to generate cohesion, precision, and productivity within the framework of an asynchronous, online group discussion. Questions for exploration include: How should expectations of adult students in an online environment be addressed? What is the role of the teacher when discussions digress but remain productive? Is the online discourse community different when the students are adults? The presenter will share a collection of narratives from adult students who discuss their online discussion experiences.

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Streaming Media: Focus on the Learner

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What is streaming media?

Streaming media is a method of creating digital video, audio, graphics and text so that it is distributed in "real-time" (synchronously) over the Internet. This means that packets of data are sent or "streamed" from a computer serving the data in real-time. The end user doesn't have to wait for the files to download or store the files on the hard drive in order to view them. A media file is quite large, so the advantage of streaming packets of information is that the end user views the media as the data is received by the user's computer from the server. This technology tool is a powerful asset in delivering instruction from a distance.

Whereas the technology that allows media to be distributed in real-time is a very recent development, the manner in which we apply this technology tool to teaching is not so new. Educational research of the past ten years informs us as to which practices best help students learn using technology tools. The key to the success of using streaming media will depend on how it is integrated into the course's over all instructional design and applied to learning activities.

How can streaming media be used for instruction?

When considering the best practices of the use of streaming media, the pedagogy should reflect what we know to be effective teaching and learning practices regardless of delivery method of the instruction. The application of streaming media should be an intricate part of the instructional design and *support those essential activities in which the student must engage to achieve the learning outcomes. We know that engagement in interactive activities in which the learner receives feedback regarding performance from either a computer, peer or teacher is a best practice.*

Streaming media can be used to support activities such as cooperative learning projects, online discussion or individual practice in applying skills and knowledge. For example, several short case studies which demonstrate concepts related to the learning objectives might be presented in streaming video and audio format. Students are then instructed to discuss the case online, perhaps answering direct questions or offering solutions to a specific problem. Alternatively, an audio visual segment may be used to present instructional information related to course learning objectives. After viewing the media clip, each student can use a computer-based quiz to assess his/her own learning by answering a series of questions that check comprehension of the learning objectives associated with the media clip.

The benefit of streaming media is that the student can control the pace of the learning process if learning materials and activities are designed to foster interactivity. A learner can also select the media which match the preferred personal learning style: text, audio or visual. Animated models, charts and graphs, which learners can manipulate, will appeal to kinesthetic learners.

Streaming media can present information to fit many learning styles.

Building Skills and Knowledge

A best practice is that all presentations of information should be clearly associated with specific learning objectives and have some form of interactions to practice the new skills or knowledge before that knowledge is assessed via exams. The more interactions a student has in order to practice new skills and knowledge, the more the student has opportunity to engage in construction of knowledge. Imagine a construction scaffold that vertically spans several stories of a 10 - story building. The top of the building is where a student must be to succeed in your class. At the bottom of the scaffold is the foundation that is necessary to support each of the next levels.

A student may have some background knowledge that is the foundation for adding new knowledge. However, an instructor may discover that he or she will need to provide remediation for the prerequisite skills and knowledge before some students can acquire new ones. It is through guided practice and interactions with new information that a learner constructs meaning. Passively reading or viewing information is usually not enough interactivity for all students to master procedural or conceptual knowledge.

Levels of Media Interactivity

Level 1- student controls stopping and starting of segment

Level 2- student implements an action and gets a "canned" response

Level 3- student implements an action and gets a unique response

Level 4- student inputs unique data and gets a unique response

Level 1

Lecture, as an instructional strategy, is not interactive. It is presentation of information in audio and visual mode. Research has shown we learn 50% of what we see and hear. (??)

In a face- to- face lecture, a low level of interaction can be incorporated by posing questions to students or considering questions from students. Unless a student gets an actual response to an individual question, lecture is not interactive. If the equivalent of a "lecture" is used in distance learning, then it recommended to pose questions that students have asked ahead of time or ones that the instructor predicts would be asked. An example of level 1 interactivity is a student starting, stopping, rewinding, etc. the RealMedia player while viewing a presentation.

Level 2- student implements an action and gets a "canned" response (all students get same response)

This level can range from multiple choice questions with corrective feedback to intricately designed simulations or role playing activities. An application of this level of interactivity would be the use of scenario or role play that was created with branching or different paths depending on the response of the student.

For instance, in one such activity designed with the purpose of demonstrating the influences of institutional discrimination, the student views several media clips of a young black woman who is making choices about school and her future. The student, who plays the role of this young woman selects an option that is presented regarding jobs, housing employment , etc.

Depending on the choice that is made after viewing each scene, new options become available to the student. Choices are somewhat limited because of certain societal restrictions. For example, the role-playing student experiences "driving while black". The outcome of the role play is dependent on the path that the student takes as a result of choices.

Level 3- student implements an action and gets a unique response

Examples of this level of interaction are similar to those of search engines and at sites like about.com or Ask Jeeves. The computer-based response will be unique to the individual's search request. High level interactive programming, such as .cgi (common gateway interface) is used for database search. An instructional use of this level might be to have a database of media which the student can search with keywords specific to a certain problem that needs to be solved.

Level 4- student inputs unique data and gets a unique response

This level is an example of artificial intelligence or intelligent tutoring systems which are capable of generating a unique response to a specific inquiry. These systems are usually in place at large research institutions or in training programs at NASA. Complex computer programs enable the learner to tailor individual instruction to fit specific needs.

Good uses of streaming media should support students in achieving learning outcomes aimed at:

1.) Procedural Knowledge ie.) a skill with narrative (text/audio) of procedures

For example a nursing distance learning program uses streaming media to demonstrate how to prepare a microscopic slide with a blood smear. The student can repeat the viewing as many times as necessary. The student then goes to a hands-on lab and practices the skill.

2.) Conceptual Knowledge ie.) a concept such as a case study or problem-based scenario with interactive opportunities to explore different outcomes, or a Flash graph that changes when you input different data

***Cognitive Apprenticeship Model* (Collins, Brown and Newman 1989)**

A good model that emphasizes the role of practice is the Cognitive Apprenticeship Model.

The analogy of "apprenticeship" suggests that acquisition of thinking and reasoning processes can also be learned by observing an expert and practicing with the guidance of a "master" or expert.

1. Modeling

Teacher gives examples and non-examples of concept or demonstrates skill. One technique is to "think aloud" as the expert proceeds through the steps of cognition.

2. Coaching

Provide students with opportunities to practice newly acquired knowledge, skills and provide feedback, offer suggestions.

First the practice is carefully guided by the expert and as the learner gains competence, the learner begins to practice independently. Use elaborative feedback rather than just "Yes, that is right." or "No, that is wrong".

3. Articulation

Students discuss problem-solving process, knowledge or reasoning.

4. Reflection

Student assesses own cognitive processes by comparing with another student or expert.

5. Exploration

Students pose own problems and continue the quest, asking questions themselves. (Collins, Brown, Newman, 1989, 481-482).

For example, in the context of language learning, a short video and audio segment may demonstrate 2 people engaged in a conversation in the new language. The learning objectives are clearly defined for the students. One of the speakers falters over understanding a word that was used. This speaker would think out loud, modeling various ways to try to determine the meaning until the speaker finally comprehends. The targeted vocabulary words appear in text on the screen as a caption as the word is applied in the context of the conversation. After viewing the media segment, the student engages in activities requiring the student to answer questions about the scene and receives feedback. The student can replay the video and audio or select key words from a text list to hear the words pronounced, see definitions, etc.

After practice exercises, small groups of students discuss online their processes of comprehension and mastery of the learning objectives. Finally, students formulate new avenues to explore related to the topic.

Conclusion

Streaming media is a powerful tool for learning environments when used effectively. Rather than seek to merely replace face-to-face lectures with audio and video lectures which have few interactions, if instructional developers keep the focus on the learner and what the learner will do with the information, the use of streaming media can reach students with a variety of learning style preferences.

Streaming media encompasses the use of text, audio, video, graphics, animations, simulations so that learners can not only control when they interact with instructional materials and how long, but they can choose the preferred mode of learning: audio, visual, kinesthetic. Streaming media is powerful as it can demonstrate both procedural and conceptual knowledge.

There is a range of interactivity available to the end-user of streaming media. The more a learner can practice new skills, the better the chance for achievement. Since not all learners learn all subjects best by reading texts, by offering alternative learning activities, more learners can be reached.

The instructional design is important to the learner's achievement. Creating apprenticeship experiences which allow the learner to practice skills and knowledge along with an expert is a good model.

In the 21st century, educators are challenged to prepare a diverse workforce to be skilled and knowledgeable employees. We have the technology tools to reach more learners than before. By keeping the focus on the learner and not on the technology alone, educators will be more likely to use sound practices that can help learners with diverse learning styles and ensure success.

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Changing Student Faces: Adult Learners from Sponsored Workplace Programs

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I have to start this paper with a story, a confession, if you want to call it that. I wanted to attend this conference. I had attended the previous two years and found it valuable to my own thinking about teaching and learning. I started thinking about what to propose for a session topic. What issue was I currently grappling with? What experience would be meaningful to investigate? I've been working with students from a workplace-sponsored program for the past four and a half years and decided to focus on that—it was time to step back and reflect on the experience, now that the program was out of its start-up phase. I wrote the conference proposal and sent it in. Once the proposal was accepted, the stress kicked in. What exactly was I going to write? What was my focus? What did I ever get myself into? I felt that I'd benefit from the conference, and I hadn't thought too much, up front, about the details.

Of course, the story has a point. Unwittingly, I had modeled my students' behavior. The one, most basic thing I learned from working with students in a partnership program was that they were there because the opportunity itself was there, an opportunity they thought they could benefit from. The details weren't that important.

Working with students in a partnership program presents an interesting experience for both faculty and student. Working with students in a partnership program of guided independent study, such as SUNY Empire State College offers, adds an even-more-interesting dimension, mostly because of the assumptions that mentors and students bring into the program. I suspect that I may have learned more than I taught during these past four years as I began to identify these assumptions. I know that what I've learned has extended my conception of mentoring and influenced my approach to mentoring all students.

A bit of background first, before the reflections. The partnership program was intended to provide associate and bachelor degrees to full-time employees of the organization. Unlike many partnership programs, which are intended to address very specific workplace-related skills through focused training, this one was designed to benefit the organization by providing the broadening experience of a college education. Only a very few courses that had a direct relationship to the organization's mission were required in the degree; students were otherwise free to choose the type, focus, and components of their degrees. The organization was one that traditionally offered education benefits to its employees, and the ESC partnership merely offered a fuller tuition benefit. The organization funded all of the students' tuition and fees; students paid only for their books and course materials. Two faculty mentors traveled to the workplace intermittently to meet briefly with students. Essentially, on the level of program design, we simply were being asked to duplicate the ESC mentoring and distance mentoring models with this cohort of students. I went into the experience carrying all of my mentoring assumptions and practices.

Assumption #1: Students in a partnership program are there as a result of a deliberate choice to develop as learners.

I always thought that I worked with adult students who had made a somewhat deliberate choice to return to higher education. Past students talked about consciously choosing ESC because of

at least one of its features (flexibility, credit by evaluation, the mentoring relationship, etc.). Daloz, who describes the kind of academic mentoring done at ESC, touches on student intentionality as he investigates the mentoring mode: "I have assumed that most students are undergoing a developmental shift from relatively tacit, unexamined ways of knowing and a sense of the self as a passive receiver toward a more critically reflective stance on their culture and a more active notion of themselves as learners" (206).

I assumed that students entering the partnership program had thought through this particular program and their own educational needs in light of their array of educational choices, especially as we went through extensive discussion and information sessions before the students enrolled. What I found was that students chose the program not because of its educational philosophy or practice, or because of their need for self-actualization, but because of more external reasons: the desire to get value from the workplace environment and the need to stabilize and/or move upward within that environment. It could be argued that the fact that these students came into the program showed their developing self-definition as learners but, in general, the reasons that they articulated tended to focus on the program's value within their outer environment instead of the program's value to themselves.

Assumption #2: Students differentiated their work and academic environments.

According to Daloz,

when students come to higher education, they are in a real sense *changing environments*. If the college is doing its job, it expects more rigorous thinking as well as more considered moral actions from its students. If education is what it should be, it represents an intensification of and expanded reflection upon the best aspects of everyday life. As such it requires of its students a different way of being if they are to adapt successfully to the new environment. In such a situation, mentors serve the important function of introducing students to the new world, interpreting it for them, and helping them to learn what they need to know to flourish in it. Mentors are, thus, *interpreters of the environment*. They help students to understand how higher education works and what it expects of them (207).

Daloz's point is important. Students *need* to understand that higher education is a new environment. The change in environment—and a concurrent change to new language, expectations, and modes of thinking and behavior—may be subconscious but still is obvious to students who move to a different physical space. Students in the partnership program initially may not have differentiated between work and academic environments fully, as shown through their actions.

During the first year of the program, not one of forty-nine new workplace-sponsored students called me outside of the traditional nine-to-five workday, although I had made it clear that they could. Students in the partnership program were additionally quite surprised when I contacted them at home and most, through their responses and tone of voice, did not encourage that contact initially. Students in the partnership program tended to exhibit different behaviors during the course of their studies as well. They rarely called to ask for advice or help. When I initiated calls to ask how they were doing, many of them just said "Fine." Initially, only when a course instructor contacted me about lack of work did a student admit to not doing much academic work at all. Students in this situation commented that when they missed a deadline on one assignment, they just assumed that they lost their chance to work on the rest of the course. It became clear after a while that many students assumed that a traditional corporate "get it fast, get it right the first time, and cover your left flank" behavior applied to their academic as well as

professional work. Students were also reluctant to meet with others as study partners or to accept help from the others in the workplace.

The latter support—help from the workplace—was a planned feature of the program that never developed fully. The workplace for this particular group of students was an exceptionally supportive one that valued volunteerism. It was rich in workers who already had degrees, workers who came from teaching and social service backgrounds. Yet even though students were encouraged to gain help from on-site "coaches," very few took this opportunity. It was, perhaps, too scary to reveal weaknesses to others who held more power within the organization, even though those others would have offered valuable and discrete help. A "traditional corporate environment" on the *students'* part (and not the organization's) prevailed.

Assumption #3: Students easily understood and accepted the role of the mentor in their learning.

Daloz, again, says it best:

Mentors are also an important part of the [new academic] environment itself. They may be doing some of the teaching, they model expected behavior, and most certainly they speak the language of the new world and understand its peculiarities. They thus provide a kind of special 'test environment' for their students. According to Robert Kegan (1982), environments affect human development in three ways: they *confirm* (it's OK to be where you are), they *contradict* (it's not OK to be where you are), and they *provide continuity* (when you move, I'll still be here). If we translate these three functions to what a mentor does, we see that mentors can do three things for their students as they work. Mentors can *support* their students in their present ways of being, they can *challenge* their students toward more appropriate adaptations to the higher education environment, and they can *provide vision* for students to help them see where they have been and also where they are going (207).

Many students in the partnership program, considering themselves part of a traditional corporate environment and focused initially on external rewards within that environment, did not necessarily "take" to the role of the mentor right away. They approached me with trepidation. Did I really have their interests at heart? Would I betray a confidence? What was I really there for, anyway? The "language of mentors" added to some students' suspicion. "Create your own degree program" was too ambiguous for many to be comfortable with. We had an interesting first and second year, with many students venturing, tentatively, into the academic environment and mentors trying to understand the workplace environment.

It could be argued that any student returning to higher education goes through this type of initiation phase, questioning the decision, trying to find a place, learning a new language, developing a new self-conception. But students in the workplace-sponsored program seemed to need a longer orientation period, along with more real and moral support. They needed supports that we didn't provide initially, because we assumed that those students came to us as a result of an internal need, that they could differentiate and easily switch professional and academic environments, and that they understood and accepted the philosophy and type of academic delivery that the program offered. Added to all of this, students came to the program at a time when the organization itself was planning for massive change and had already started to restructure. No wonder many students felt adrift in new, potentially dangerous, waters. The mentor must have seemed like a mighty small life raft.

Additionally, many students came to the program with relatively shaky academic backgrounds, coming from public school systems that were not rigorous academically. Others did not speak English as a first language; the organization has a very diverse workforce. Still others came to the ESC program with strong college backgrounds, but experienced an academic culture shock at the amount and type of work required in a distance program of guided independent study. The focus on mentoring was foreign to most of these students. So that's where we started to work, once we started to understand and articulate these assumptions as well as the broader student and organizational situation. We worked very hard to develop and then routinize student supports.

What we're doing about it all ...

First of all, we worked on the most basic support, the most concrete things—the ways in which mentors and students relate within a physical space. When we met in person, we usually met students in a conference room that had one long, formal table. I started out sitting at the side of the table, in the middle, but soon found that students were not comfortable sitting next to me—too exposed. So I made sure to sit at the end of the long side of the table. Students could then choose to sit at the head (in the place of control) or opposite (equal but with some room to maneuver). I always made sure to touch the student at the beginning and end of our talk—a solid handshake at first, and then eventually a hug. When we met at a distance—when I called students—I tried to start the conversation by asking whether the student had time for a few minutes' break, to try to emphasize the non-work-related purpose of the conversation. These things are very simple, yet we needed to learn more consciously to enact them, to try to enforce the idea of a shift in environment.

As students finished—or didn't finish—their first year with the program, we realized that we needed additional support up front, even before the students started to enroll, to ease them into the new environment. We created two orientation videos for partnership program students. One video focused on the "nuts and bolts" of the course enrollment and start-up process: how to choose a course, what the catalog looked like, how the books would be delivered, what a course guide looked like, how to start working on the course. The other video focused on the concept of guided independent study. It named the issues that students face (time management, writing and critical thinking expectations) and used a number of student and faculty interviews to present these issues. Along with these materials, we created a new, simplified orientation that focused on the basics of what students needed to know: five questions with the answers to be looked up in the *Student Handbook*, and a letter or e-mail to the mentor based on a reaction to the videos. The new, visual aspect of orientation helped the students get a better sense of a new place.

We also changed our usual student support practices and became much more proactive in contacting students at the start of each term of study, as we tried to work on a shift in the student's internal environment to help them succeed as learners. In addition to the mentor and the course instructor calling students, staff called students as well at the start of each term. While students often told faculty that things were "fine," they admitted to ESC staff that they hadn't yet ordered their books or started their course work. We developed a list of basic questions, dealing with things such as term preparation and faculty contact, for ESC staff to ask students. Staff reported any problems to the mentor, who could act to correct them and thus help the student start the course work more smoothly. Initially, we encountered some resistance at the College to this intensive calling. Other faculty commented that these were adult students who needed to take some responsibility for their learning; they did not need to be coddled. Yet we found that these students really did need the calls, if not to straighten out problems, then just to know that the College cared enough about them to call. It was all part of

creating a new, learner-centered environment and making sure that students knew it was a supportive one. As Daloz states, students needed to know, again and again, that "[we are] on your side; we are in this together" (209). Students in this case needed to understand institutional as well as mentor support.

During the first two years, when we realized that many students had not fully considered the nature of the program before they started, we also called course instructors at the start of the term. We identified students from the sponsored program, let instructors know that these students might need more instructor-initiated contact and more time to complete their studies, and supported faculty with small, additional compensation.

More recently, we've redesigned a web space to highlight students (with photographs and short biographies) as well as provide information about the program. We've also created and piloted a one-credit course, Introduction to Guided Independent Study, to use as a resource for those students who express doubt about this approach to learning. The course touches on the aspects that students need to examine in order to grow and thrive academically (time management, how to get resources at ESC, mentor role, student responsibilities, how to read and respond to an assignment, writing skills, the expectation for critical thinking).

We also offered tangible support in terms of course materials and workspace. We sent copies of books and materials for the organization's required courses to the workplace. We gathered information about quiet rooms and spaces that students could reserve. Mentoring, in many cases, needed to include information about navigating the workplace as well as academic environments.

Finally, we found we needed to explain directly, in many cases, that "that's what a mentor does." When we successfully arranged a course extension, a textbook, a study space, we needed *not* to have the student feel personally responsible to us, but to know that the service is part of the mentoring relationship, which is an outgrowth of the philosophy of the College.

If you're thinking, at this point, that we were relatively stuck in the "support" mode of mentoring, you're right. Most of what we did in the first two years was support; many of the students in the initial group of matriculants took that amount of time to get through their first course work. Some dropped out, but many persevered. And most of those who stayed with the program have started to understand and grow.

And what we still need to do...

We still need to work more carefully to refine orientation to college and to identify student skills earlier and more smoothly, perhaps through orientation or through special helps that students can access as they do their first courses.

We now have a cohort of successful students, students who are making steady progress toward completing their degrees. We need to find ways to use these students to serve as guides to new students. We have used current students informally up to this point; we need to find a way and a format through which to use their expertise more formally, with sanction from the workplace.

Three students out of the approximately seventy-five who are currently in the program linked with coworkers for various studies. One worked as an intern in another department, as part of a practicum course in her field. Another did a course in adult learning methods with a colleague whose expertise was in that area. The third linked with a colleague for informal writing skills

help. These pairings have been successful, mostly because these students were able to succeed as students first, within the structure that the College provided. As they developed—as we were able to move out of full "support" and add some "challenge" to the student-mentor relationship, they gained the confidence to go back to the workplace and use resources there. They had drawn away from the workplace, into themselves, in order to go back into the workplace in a different role; they had learned how to take a chance in order to learn. Their journeys were not easy. Two of the students especially struggled with their images learners. But the results of this workplace-related learning were quite good—these students gained the respect of their coworkers, who were in higher management positions, and they gained self-respect as they met the challenge of the learning. Most of all, we need to learn how to help other students make the sort of links that will be useful to them, as a way of making the workplace into a learning place as well—one of the ultimate goals of the program.

Finally, we need to start investigating, more overtly, how students' conceptions of their workplace have changed as a result of participating in this partnership, and we need to find a way to feed that information back into the organization. We need to do the same at the College as well, as one of the most important results of working with students in the partnership program was in making the mentors' own workplace into a learning place. The real learning in any workplace sponsored program, for both workplace and educational institution, student and mentor, lies in identifying and challenging assumptions.

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Abstract for Ricardo Diaz: Preparing Immigrant Adults for Post Secondary Education Through Online Courses: Their IT Access

What is known about the computer access of immigrant adults preparing for continuing education programs? This paper reviews the results of a national survey of computer access points and will then discuss the adaptations that the developers are presently making to reach appropriate audiences for two non-commercial courses, one targeted for intermediate learners of English who plan to continue their education beyond the secondary level and one other that teaches civics..

The Role of Conscious Reflection in Experiential Learning

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Abstract

This paper describes a journey through a relevant, although disparate, literature, which was undertaken in order to better understand what it means to learn from experience. As this journey progressed, the crucial importance, even the appropriateness, of conscious reflection as a way of legitimizing experiential learning was called increasingly into question. When the problem was seen as being the result of assuming a dichotomy between experience and abstract knowledge, it was suggested that a possible solution may come from the relatively new concept of knowledge as embodied.

For the past few years, because of my involvement in the assessment of prior (experiential) learning, I have been asking questions about what it means to learn from experience as distinct from, say, formal instruction in school. Such questions were stimulated in part by videotapes I have collected over the years in which students, as they begin the process of formally requesting credit for knowledge acquired from experience, try to describe what and how they have learned in informal settings. Many of these videotapes I have shared at past Alliance conferences.

It is interesting to note that the award of prior learning credit typically takes place without much, if any, theoretical discussion about the way in which learning from experience takes place. For the most part, students requesting credit are expected to demonstrate an understanding of a particular subject area that is equivalent to what might be taught about that subject in a formal classroom setting. Qualitative differences between what they have learned from experience and what students know at the end of a semester-long course are not ordinarily acknowledged, as long as those claiming experiential knowledge can show that what they know shows a strong resemblance to what is taught in a course. Thus, when various questions began to arise (see for example, Coulter et al, 1994; Coulter, 1996; Herman and Coulter, 1998; Coulter et al, 1998; Coulter, in press), it was with some embarrassment that I realized how little I knew of the scholarly and theoretical literature on experiential learning. This paper describes my ongoing efforts to remedy that situation.

My journey into the experiential learning scholarly terrain, which has been going on now for the past three years or so, has been in some ways astonishing and exciting, and in other ways very puzzling. One of the difficulties I encountered is that this terrain is large, rarely identified as relevant to prior learning, and filled with disconnected pockets of scholarship. In terms of the terrain analogy, my search for information felt like an uncharted hike from one isolated village in the mountains to another. As I now take time to look back on this, as yet unfinished, trip, I see a small trail of crumbs that moved me along toward my current destination starting with my initial reading of David Kolb and subsequently of his followers. While I have since traveled far afield from those first readings, it was their stress upon the critical nature of conscious reflection that caught my attention and which ultimately drew me along in my other readings. As I became more consumed by the question of intentional reflection, it began to take

over as the purpose of my inquiry. Perhaps if I ever finish this journey, my original questions, long since set aside, may become, if not answered, at least regarded in a somewhat different light.

Literature on Experiential Learning and Education

Kolb's book, *Experiential Learning* (1964) is certainly the most obvious place to begin in any scholarly review of the recent literature. His book is substantive and challenging, and it contains many interesting ideas; however, in the adult learning field what is generally best remembered is his definition of experiential learning as a progressive or developmental cycle (see Kolb, p. 42). Derived from earlier cyclical models such as were developed by John Dewey and Kurt Lewin, Kolb's cycle consists of four stages:

- Concrete experience
- Reflective observation
- Abstract conceptualization
- Active experimentation

While Kolb goes on to consider each of these stages as different ways of knowing, he defines experiential learning as a whole as a continuous recycling of this four-stage feedback loop. First, the person has an experience; then the person reflects upon what he or she has observed; s/he then conceptualizes abstractly upon what these observations might mean; finally, s/he creates a plan of action that emerges from this conceptualization of the process. As the plan of action is executed, the person begins again the process of experiencing.

Two quite different bodies of literature have grown out of Kolb or Dewey. A number of edited volumes by Boud et al (Boud, Cohen & Walker, 1993; Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985; Boud & Miller, 1996) and Weil & McGill (1990), also an early text by Schon (1983), provide numerous studies and examples of adult learning from experience. In Boud et al's volumes, it is clear that the reflective stage in Kolb's model (and other such models) is taken very seriously, as illustrated by the title of the oldest of these volumes: *Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning* (Boud et al, 1985). Indeed, consonant with Kolb's theory, learning is assumed not to occur at all unless there is active and intentional reflection. Throughout nearly all these books, the role of the teacher is seen as critical in helping students turn their experience into learning.

The other body of literature, which is on experiential education, exemplified in the edited volume by Warren et al (1995), similarly focuses upon the importance of the teacher for helping typically young students interpret various experiential opportunities that are engineered or developed as part of their formal training. In these writings, Kolb is never cited, but much theoretical significance is given to Dewey (e.g., 1910, 1929, 1938) -- in terms of his cyclical model as well as his emphasis upon the importance of creating learning opportunities around the interests and relevant experiences of students. Again, as with Kolb and Boud, the creation of learning depends not on "experience" per se, but upon the intervention of a teacher who helps students understand that experience. Thus, the critical importance of intentional reflection is similarly embraced by practitioners of experiential education, stemming directly from John Dewey's belief that:

The crucial educational problem is that of procuring the postponement of immediate action upon desire until observation and judgment have intervened...[which] then give direction to what is otherwise blind. . .(Dewey, 1938, p. 69).

Literature on Prior Learning Assessments

It is not clear how well the assessment of prior learning fits into this particular model of learning. By definition most adults acquire experiential knowledge without the assistance of teachers, and a literal reading of this literature would seem to imply that therefore learning could not have taken place without this guidance. It may be for this reason that so much emphasis in the literature is focused, not on theory, but upon the methodology of prior learning assessment (see for example: Keeton & Associates, 1976; Whittaker, 1989; Mandell & Michelson, 1990), where teachers are still seen to play a major role in helping students recognize, articulate, and organize what they know, even if it is after the fact. Scheckley and his associates (e.g., Scheckley & Pranger, 2001) have suggested that "deliberate practice" in the field may be the way by which unsophisticated learners are stimulated into purposeful reflection and acquire their experiential expertise. As developed by Ericsson et al (1993) to expand upon Kolb's model, the theory of deliberate practice identifies various mechanisms (e.g., structured learning experiences, guided and independent practice) which provide the necessary "postponement of action" that allows for deliberation and which Scheckley & Pranger argue are similar to what occurs when students prepare their portfolios for assessment. Whether this theory, or others such as Schon's (1983) which also focuses upon practitioner-initiated reflection, is applicable to the assessment of experiential learning is hard to determine. It is probably fair to say that questions about the utility for assessment of Kolb-like theories, however developed, still remain very much open, but, as recently pointed out by my colleague, Alan Mandell (2000), questions emerging from the practice of prior learning assessment are always more prevalent than answers (see also: Hoffman, 1989; some articles from Weil & McGill, 1990, and Mulligan & Griffin, 1992; and Fraser, 1995).

Literature on Experience

Not all writings on experiential learning stress the importance of a mediator or guide. Many books have been written to simply emphasize the other Deweyan message -- that experiential learning, or learning first hand by doing, produces deeper and more enduring knowledge than isolated classroom or second-hand learning. Eisner (1994), Hopkins (1994), and Reed (1996) all argue that formal education, which is inordinately dependent upon book-learning is really quite shallow and relatively ineffective. The theoretical importance of these writings is that they call into question the use of formal learning as a benchmark against which to assess experiential learning. It could well be that Dewey and Kolb's view of experience as somehow "raw" and undigested ("blind" in the words of Dewey above) needing the civilizing force of intentional reflection to make it meaningful is wrong. Certainly, this conception of experience seems directly contradicted by some of these writings, as well as by several writers who describe how first-hand experiences on the job provide learning opportunities that are otherwise simply unavailable (see e.g., Burnard, 1991, on nursing; Scannell & Simpson, 1996, on the value of student internships; Calder & McCollum, 1998, on vocational learning;). Eisner (1994) illustrates these ideas by having the reader examine a picture of two people interacting in a restaurant and then asking them to read a well written description of the picture. He then asks which experience is richer, and it is patently obvious that infinitely more information is conveyed by the picture than the prose piece. In other words, these writers clearly see educational value in experience itself and are not prepared to state that such experiences constitute learning only if they are subjected to additional thought.

These ideas are supported by Vasilyuk (1992) whose research, he argues, supports the Marxian idea of the "ascent from the abstract to the concrete [my emphasis]," a position that contrasts sharply with the usual assumption that abstraction (the focus of formal education) is at a higher level than concrete knowledge (the presumed outcome of experiential learning). Vasilyuk, however, has a somewhat different perspective on the meaning of "experience" in that for him, experiencing is a form of consciousness, subjective knowing, or "a partly unformed stream of feeling that accompanies every lived aspect of what we are and mean and perceive" (Gendlin, 1962, as cited by Vasilyuk). Experiential learning in this context consists of facing one's feelings, working them through, resolving critical life situations, restoring mental equilibrium, and so forth; thus, abstract feelings are made meaningful by rendering them concrete.

The Sociocultural Literature

A critical analysis of the assumption that experiential learning by itself is less meaningful than formal learning is shared by other researchers who have been strongly influenced by Vygotsky's sociocultural psychology and his theory of learning from action (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978; Martin et al, 1995; Wertsch et al, 1995). Their argument is that learning is action and that how we learn is very much affected by the moment and the circumstances of the learning. Thus, formal learning with its emphasis upon literate expression, is much more circumscribed by the limited context of the academic world than we realize. Indeed, a set of experiences, when forced to be "translated" into the more acceptable realm of academic discourse may not only be reduced in substance, as in the earlier Eisner example, but also is often distorted so as to conform to a possibly inappropriate academic perspective (Clifford & Marcus, 1986, as cited by Glick, 1995).

The academic form privileges knowledge of a certain type, and elevates that form of knowledge to universal and moral status as the kind of knowledge that people should have if they are said to have knowledge at all. . . Such selection practices can serve to fundamentally skew accounts of the phenomena under study and obscure certain essential elements that "do not fit" into theoretical idealizations. . . [This can be identified] as a privileging of an "idealized" over an "activity" perspective. This in turn relates to a privileging of the "intellectual forms" over the other forms often associated with "doing" (Glick, 1995, p. 361).

As academics we are generally unaware of this bias.

The focus on context by sociocultural psychologists is quite interesting in its own right since it suggests to many researchers that learning, knowledge, even intentions are not simply properties of an individual mind. Dewey, some years back (1939) made the observation that individual intelligence depends upon the shared knowledge of the culture, and others, more recently, argue more boldly that intelligence or knowledge as a property of a single mind is an illusion. In the edited volume by Salomon, *Distributed Cognitions* (1993), the contributors illustrate in a variety of ways how personal knowledge is socially distributed, is dependent upon numerous tools and technologies, and arises out of history and culture. Even individual intentions, including purposeful reflection, the subject of inquiry in this paper, have been argued to be socially situated (e.g., Hobson, 1991). As observed by Zeedyk (2001), who does research on the development of intentionality in children:

It does not make sense, from the social theorists' perspective, to conceive of communicative acts and intentions as only a property of mind, lodged within the head of an individual. Rather, from their perspective, intention and intentional capacities are constituted within the child's embodied relation to the world, initially the world of people and later that of objects (Zeedyk, 2001, p. 90).

What then does this conception of intentionality as socially determined (or a product of history, culture, or context) imply for a theory of experiential learning that requires individual purpose or effort (e.g.,

Ericsson & Charness, 1994)? Indeed, what are the implications of this perspective for the award of credit for experientially-based, or any other, individual achievement?

Literature on Expert and Practical Knowledge

Returning to the idea that experiential learning is not well understood (much less well translated) by academics, we find additional support for these ideas in two other areas of research: the literature that describes the work of psychologists interested in "expert" knowledge" (e.g., Chi et al, 1988, Ericsson, 1991) and those who study everyday practical knowledge or intelligence (e.g., Rogoff & Lave, 1984; Sternberg & Wagner, 1986; Lave, 1988; Poon et al, 1989). In both areas of study, how people think in the real world has been examined in some depth. Researchers studying expertise have discovered that experienced individuals demonstrate strategies of thought and memory that seriously challenge a number of cognitive theories. For example, the memory strategies of waiters simply do not support the long-established two-factor theory of memory (Ericsson & Poisn, 1988). Even more surprising are studies suggesting that it is only the inexperienced who work out problems on an abstract rational basis; experts, in contrast but consonant with Vasilyuk's ideas, operate largely on the basis of an extensive repertory of remembered concrete experiences. Thus, an inexperienced doctor analyzes symptoms logically as s/he was taught in class, whereas an experienced doctor diagnoses patients by comparing their symptoms to those of others s/he has treated (Groen & Pate, 1988).

Overall, the strategies undertaken by workers in the real world are developed so as to maximize efficiency, even if, as in the case of ill-structured problems (e.g., the admissions process in college, Voss & Post, 1988), efficiency does not necessarily lead to greater accuracy. As Glick argues in another context (1995), efficiency is not particularly valued in academia; indeed, it makes sense that what is valued and learned in the workplace may differ dramatically from the values and requirements of the academic world. But again this difference raises questions about the appropriateness of requiring experiential learning not only to resemble academic content but to rely on formal study techniques, such as deliberation and reflection, that may not be effective, or even accessible, in the real world.

From the practical knowledge literature, some of the most interesting findings, such as by Sylvia Scribner (1986), have shown instances of extraordinary competence by individuals who are neither schooled nor particularly reflective and who cannot articulate the skills that they amply demonstrate every day. Other researchers have provided very detailed analyses of the complex cognitive strategies that underlie experiential knowledge that is seemingly inarticulate such as in various forms of manual labor. (See for example, Keller & Keller, 1996, in *Cognition and Tool Use: The Blacksmith at Work* or Dalmiya and Alcoff, 1993, on the knowledge base of midwives). Again, such findings seriously challenge a theory of experiential learning that requires purposeful or intentional reflection before it can be acknowledged that knowledge has been acquired.

Literature on Tacit Knowledge and Consciousness

Similar challenges arise from the literature on "tacit knowledge," a form of knowing that has been discussed in some depth by the scientist and philosopher, Polyani (1967, 1958). The very term refers to knowledge that is unarticulated and inaccessible to consciousness, a concept that seems to contradict to the core the assumptions of Dewey and Kolb about the nature of learning. Tennant & Pogson (1995) pointed out the potential relevance of this type of knowledge in trying to understand the experiential learning of adults, and recently such relevance was demonstrated in a volume edited by Sternberg &

Horvath (1999) in which contributors provided numerous examples of unarticulated and generally inaccessible knowledge that affects and even controls the performance, judgment, and decision-making of experts and professionals in a wide variety of fields.

It is an article of faith by educators that learning, thinking, and indeed the intelligent behavior that sets us apart from nonhuman animals are dependent upon or defined by consciousness. Indeed, it is on the basis of this assumption that Dewey, Kolb, Baud, Schon, and many others, have posited the crucial importance of joining intentional (i.e., conscious) reflection with experience before true learning can be acknowledged. Yet, much of the research I have so briefly described tends to suggest that purpose, deliberateness, intentionality, and conscious reflection are actually not necessary for even sophisticated learning to take place. While the topic of consciousness, which has attracted considerable attention in recent years, particularly by philosophers, goes way beyond the purview of this paper, it is of interest to note that an increasing number of studies support the idea that consciousness may be relatively unimportant in the development and execution of intelligent behavior. This literature ranges from Julian Jaynes's review of research (1976) showing consciousness to be unnecessary for concept formation, learning, thinking, problem solving or reasoning to a surprisingly similar argument presented by a contemporary psychobiologist (Gazzaniga, 2000); from an originally startling review of experiments showing that people do not have access to the reasons why they make the decisions or judgments that they do (Nisbett & Campbell, 1977) to a whole issue of the *American Psychologist* (1999) devoted to studies coming to a similar conclusion.

A Few Thoughts on Embodied Knowledge

Of relevance to this issue is a growing body of writing advocating the idea of "embodied knowledge," a term that can refer to the ways by which our ability to reason or think is constrained by the structure of our brain (from a molar perspective, see Lakoff & Johnson, 1999; from a molecular perspective, see Carlson, 1997), our emotions (e.g., Damasio, 1994), or our physical or other forms of worldly experiences (eg., Grosz, 1993; Varela et al, 1997). What is interesting about this literature is that in different ways, these ideas make an effort to eliminate the distinction between the ordinarily separated concepts of mind and body, much as the philosopher, Merleau-Ponty, has used the concept of embodiment to resolve the problems of "ontological dualism" (Dillon, 1988/1997). Thus, learning or knowledge is not regarded as residing only in the head, much as the sociocultural psychologists have argued, leaving open rather than closed questions about the actual role of consciousness.

The puzzle of experiential learning may therefore be the product of the not-often-acknowledged old and seemingly intractable mind-body problem. Put another way, the demand for conscious reflection by Dewey, Kolb, and others, may be simply a reflection of their underlying belief that embodied experience must be converted into disembodied knowledge before it can be considered legitimate. Development of the idea that knowledge is inherently embodied may lead to a reconceptualization of experiential learning that resolves at least some of the contradictions evident in the literature I have so far reviewed. If we are to move forward in our understanding of what it means to know from experience, new ways of thinking about the learning our students have acquired on the job or in other informal settings would be most welcome. We need to be freed from a set of assumptions about the nature of learning that quite possibly blind us to a much richer understanding of knowledge.

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Building Online Learning Communities

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Building Online Learning Communities

In the fall of 1999, The Technology Leadership Institute, a consortium of institutions concerned with the infusion of technology into teacher education, received a three-year, \$2,000,000 grant

from the US Department of Education's Preparing Tomorrow's Teachers to Use Technology initiative. The goal of the project is to improve pre-service teacher education in Texas and beyond by promoting the integration of technology into teacher preparation within the four-state area of Kansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. Stakeholders include K-12 teachers and administrators, post-secondary educators and leaders, and individuals from government agencies involved in educational policy, standards and benchmarks, and teacher certification.

The Texas Center for Educational Technology (TCET), University of North Texas (UNT), The University of Texas at Austin (UT), Texas State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC), and Texas Education Agency (TEA) have formed a strong partnership that addresses a wide array of teacher education challenges and issues.

The project, Technology Leadership Institute, has three main foci, with specific partners assuming responsibility for each. TCET, lead organization for the group, together with UNT, focuses on providing models of excellence in technology infusion at the K-12 level. SBEC and TEA concentrate on policy, standards, and benchmarks. The University of Texas, the focus of the current article, is responsible for project activities related to post-secondary institutions.

Technology Leadership Academy (Academy)

The mission of the Technology Leadership Academy, a component of the Technology Leadership Institute, is to develop a learning community among teacher preparation programs. During the past year it has grown from an abstract concept to an organization with around 350 members within the four-state area of Kansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. From the beginning, the goal was to build a collegial and collaborative organization to provide mutual support and sharing of resources in the challenging task of infusing technology into teacher preparation. The first organizational meeting, hosted by the University of Texas in January, 2000, was attended by key officials from universities and state educational agencies from the four states. Activities included: finalizing the Academy's organizational structure; establishing priorities; dividing into task groups (each concentrating on one aspect of the Academy's mission); nominating chairs of each Task Group (to serve on the Steering Committee and oversee the Task Group's functioning); and identifying a set of directives and recommendations for the Task Groups.

The Steering Committee, comprised of deans, faculty and technology directors, provides direction and oversight of the Academy's activities and meets several times a year to review progress and discuss future plans.

Organizational Structure

As shown in Figure 1, the organizational structure of the Academy is designed to assure that it is responsive to the needs of the member institutions. The Steering Committee provides leadership for the Academy and is represented by 14 individuals who come from the member post-secondary institutions. The Academy has nine task groups, and each task group is chaired by a Steering Committee member.



Figure 1.

Academy Organization

Task Groups

The Task Groups consist of volunteer faculty or staff from the member institutions or state educational agencies. Each Task Group is responsible for determining and coordinating its specific part of the Academy's functioning. Eight Task Groups emerged from the organizational meeting of the Academy. These included: Assessment and Planning, Academy Web Community, Consultants Database, Fall Institute, Policy and Leadership, Professional Development, Regional Conferences, and Technology Integration. Recently the Academy formed a ninth committee, the Digital Equity Task Group.

Assessment and Planning Task Group

The Assessment and Planning Task Group is identifying and/or developing exemplary and powerful tools to help member institutions assess their current level of technology infusion and to assess progress in achieving goals of their strategic technology plans. During the organizational meeting the Task Group has identified several important challenges facing educators in relation to assessment and planning. Challenges facing many teacher preparation programs include:

- a disconnect between strategic planning and data gathering systems
 - a disconnect between institutional strategic plans and the activities of technology leaders
 - the need for a new, dynamic planning process.

The group recommended the use of a range of assessment instruments by institutions of teacher preparation, selected to fit the institution's structure and needs. The members also

suggested that the Fall Institute sponsored by the Academy provide a forum in which leaders learn to use multiple assessment tools and in which members who have experienced institutional assessments share the lessons learned. The members of this group emphasized that technology assessment and planning must be process-driven and standards-driven. Leaders must examine all aspects of the institutional support system, including business, parents, and students.

During this first year of the project, the Assessment Task Group has identified existing institutional assessment instruments and posted these on the Academy web site (<http://www.edb.utexas.edu/academy>) along with descriptions of the unique strengths and weaknesses of each tool. Dr. George Stanford, an Academy consultant, has also developed an instrument that represents a new and unique tool for institutional assessment and planning that has been well received by member institutions. Stanford's assessment instrument, *Targets for Technology*, is posted on the Academy web site or the PT3 Profiler web site.

Consultant Database

At the Academy organizational meeting, the participants identified the need for a database of exemplars and best practices in technology infusion in teacher preparation. In seeking to move forward, member institutions want to learn from sister institutions that have developed successful programs or components of programs. They want to learn of innovative practices, planning strategies, professional development models and resources, faculty incentives and policies, and exemplars of high quality technology integration in content and methods courses. More specifically, they are seeking faculty and administrators in member institutions that may help mentor them in addressing specific challenges they face in infusing technology into their teacher preparation program. It was determined that establishing an online data base of consultants from member institutions would represent a unique and powerful resource for meeting these needs. The Task Group and Academy staff are currently working on the development of such a data base of shared expertise and resources. Some of the challenges encountered in developing the data base include establishing a plan and appropriate criteria for evaluation, and forming a viable network for sharing of resources.

Over the past year, the members of this Task Group have been active in specifying criteria for the consultants who will be included in the data base and identifying sources of information that may help identify potential consultants. These sources include Academy members, business and industry people, corporate partners, PT3 project directors, trade and scholarly journals, professional meetings, electronic boards, and intermediate service agencies. The critical areas of consultant expertise needed for the data base include: strategic planning, technical systems, staff development at university level, media resources, visionary speaking, evaluation, grant development, and content.

Academy staff are currently working with members of this task group to construct the Consultant Database. As an initial step in building the consultant pool, the Task Group has asked member institutions to identify and nominate individuals within their institutions with expertise in the above areas. The Academy's web site will showcase descriptions of these best practices in order to provide models for other faculty members and to stimulate online discussions, mentoring and collaboration among faculty members.

Policy and Leadership

The Policy and Leadership Task Group defined the Academy's role as supporting institutional leaders and policy makers in their efforts to infuse technology into their programs. Members of

this Task Group identified a number of challenges facing the leadership of educational institutions, including limited access to technology resources and funding at both the college and K-12 level. In many instances, colleges of education are at the "bottom of the food chain" in the allocation of equipment or facility funds by the central administration of the university. This has resulted in the unfortunate consequence that many teacher preparation programs provide less access to technology for future teachers than is available to students in public schools. Policy group members have been active at the state level in developing state educational technology plans, and developing teacher technology competency standards. They have also identified strategies for working with the business community as advocates in helping legislators and university presidents understand the need for high quality technology preparation of future teachers and resources needed to accomplish this task. The Academy is helping to engage university administrators in strategic technology planning for teacher education and in sharing policies and best practices between member institutions. As part of this effort the Academy is aggregating institutional self-assessment data so that it can be used internally and to inform legislators about current needs in educational technology at the higher education level.

The Policy and Leadership Task Group played a key role in the 2000 Fall Institute focused on strategic technology planning. Members of the task force presented workshops on strategic technology planning, developing external funding resources, policy issues, etc. They have also helped facilitate meetings with state Dean's associations. For example in the spring, the Academy was given a half day at the start of the annual retreat of the Texas Deans Association. At this session the Academy provided an overview of its goals, resources, and initiatives and facilitated discussion on the emerging teacher technology competency standards and their implications for their existing programs. The resulting discussion highlighted concerns in areas relating to changing certification standards and underlined the importance of ongoing conversation among deans of colleges of education, state agencies, and K-12 educators.

Professional Development

The task of the Professional Development Group is to identify ways in which the Academy can support professional development for technology infusion within institutions of teacher preparation. At the initial meeting, this group identified challenges in providing professional development including lack of information of technology competencies of faculty, lack of professional development resources and incentives, lack of one-on-one training and technical support in many institutions, etc. The Task Group recognized the challenges posed by the new national standards for teacher technology competencies and their implications for future accreditation visits as well as emerging state teacher technology competency standards.

The Task Group has been working to identify effective tools for assessment of present levels of faculty technology fluency as well as effective models and strategies for faculty development and support. They identified models such as GenY (in which, preservice teachers serve as mentors), the Layering Model (in which master teachers, serve as lead teachers to a group), and the Peer Training Model (in which undergraduate teacher education candidates serve in a training role to their peers) that may help meet the needs of member institutions. The Academy supports these mentoring opportunities by awarding teacher educator and pre-service teacher teams with registration to the Fall Institute and by facilitating ongoing collaboration among institutions.

The Professional Development Task Group has a central role in determining and developing program events for the 2001 Fall Institute. In addition, the Academy web site presently has a virtual "Faculty Mentor" which guides faculty through a series of questions to web-based

professional development tutorials that meets their needs.

Regional Workshops

The Regional Workshop Group is responsible for identifying how regional workshops can accomplish the goals of the Academy and to develop plans for encouraging and supporting regional workshops. The Task Group members have been working to mitigate the barriers to technology infusion identified by other task groups and to provide models of true integration, rather than provide tutorials for technology tools. At present, the plan is to divide the area into geographic units with break-out sessions for institution type (large public, small public, private). Distance education will provide linkages among several institutions hosting regional training simultaneously. The Academy supports the regional initiatives by providing speakers, online support, and access to web libraries and by sponsoring meetings among the area coordinators and facilitating communication as structure, content, and organization of regional workshops are identified.

This task group has made considerable progress. Evaluations of the Fall Institute have been collected and written comments have been aggregated. These suggestions have helped sharpen the focus and format of the regional workshops. Negotiations are underway for state and regional workshops. An important goal of the regional or state workshops is to build connections and collaborations between the regional institutions. Too often, although there are teacher preparation programs reasonably proximate to each other, they may have little contact or sharing of expertise and resources between the institutions. The regional workshops are designed to identify programs or faculty within the adjacent institutions who have done an outstanding job of integrating technology into instruction. In present planning of regional workshops, the Academy Team is exploring other potential sponsors of the workshop as well as different strategies to help financially support the regional conferences.

Fall Institute

The Fall Institutes represents a major venue to assist Academy member institutions in reaching target levels of technology infusion in teacher education. The Fall Institute Task Group has the responsibility for planning and conducting the conference. The first year, the focus of the institute was *Strategic Planning for Success*. The second year's theme is *Technology Infusion: Strategies and Challenges in Professional Development*, and year three will focus on *Technology: A Moving Target*. The Institute is a 3-day event in mid-September. Teams include deans, technology leaders, faculty, and partner K-12 school staff. Special guests include representatives from state legislatures and educational governing boards.

The First Annual Fall Institute was held in Austin, Texas, in September 2000. Attendance at the institute was limited by space, and the 28 team slots were filled within two weeks of the opening of registration.

The first of three annual institutes focused on institutional planning. Guest speakers and panelists of national recognition provided interactive discussions and were available to work with teams as they generated strategic plans. The evaluations from this institute were highly supportive. Registration for and information regarding the second Fall Institute is posted on the Academy web site (<http://www.edb.utexas.edu/academy/registration/index.html>).

Technology Integration

A key challenge in the integration of technology in higher education is the misconception that adding

technology does not add value. The charge of this task group, and the Academy as a whole, is to reverse that principle. The group concluded that a change in pedagogy will influence the adoption of technology. Pedagogy must move from teacher-centered to student-centered and provide for collaboration and inquiry-based learning. Too often technology is disconnected from curriculum, students' needs and experiences, and overall school vision. Students must view technology as being contextual, relevant, and meaningful to them as individuals, as members of families, as citizens of a local community, and as members of the global community. Faculty in higher education need assistance in infusing technology by such means as faculty development, opportunities outside their teaching load, stipends, and workshops. There must be a relationship between what the students are actually experiencing in the outside world (the way they use technology, the excitement and consistency) with how technology is presented in the classroom. Members of this task group are currently helping Academy staff identify best practices in integration, which will be posted on the Academy web site.

Digital Equity

The recently formed Digital Equity Task Group is currently working to identify key challenges and recommendations. The responsibility of this group will be to ensure that activities and resources of the Academy are inclusive and supportive of all people, and that the contributions of all groups are sought and valued. Academy staff and consultants are currently serving on the national PT3 Digital Equity Committee.

Website and Listservs

The web site serves as a portal for accessing the planning, assessment, and professional development resources of the Academy and its member institutions. A second virtual tool for community building is a set of listservs. The entire Academy membership is on a central listserv and receives monthly newsletters and other announcements. Institutional representatives (one lead person from each member institution) receive team information for dissemination. Each Task Group and the Steering Committee have a listserv to meet their group needs. The communication through these lists further adds to the Academy's collegial environment. Individuals interested in being a part of these listservs may make such a request from the web site.

The Organic Nature of Learning Communities

The Academy has found that although virtual environments can powerfully support the development of learning communities, extensive face-to-face interaction and opportunities to participate are also essential. Learning communities are organic—needs driven and participant framed. It is the membership and interactions within that membership that provide the definition, the direction, and the power of the community. The Academy is a learning community with potential to have significant impact on teacher education. Although it is the member institutions that provide the talent and resources, these resources gain strength and vision through the collaboration and support within the learning community.

Please visit our web site at <http://www.edb.utexas.edu/academy>

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An ever-increasing number of teachers and students are finding themselves in an on-line environment by either teaching or enrolling in computer mediated instruction, primarily through using the internet and its corresponding software. Enthusiasm for distance education is high for many administrators and faculty and the buzz words of active learning, lifelong learning, anytime/anyplace learning are often heard throughout the corridors of higher education. While the technological wave is certainly upon us, the association of education with the information revolution also has its downside. Students and faculty alike are having to, if we may borrow a word from business, retool in order to stay up with this tide. One of the areas where both teachers and students need to modify their understanding involves the concepts of effective teaching and learning as well as the adaptations that are necessary in order to communicate and relate to each other in this emerging world of technology. While there are many concerns for faculty in this, some would say "brave new world" of education, what we will address in this paper is how can we encourage community building in a digital environment and why this remains important. This is a complex question, but one area of concern for us as teachers is how can we use this technology to be effective teachers; that is to say, how we can reduce the anxiety that many adult learners bring to our digital classrooms that may stand in the way of successful learning and course completion. It is our position that the reduction of this uncertainty is important, if not critical, to the ability of students and instructors to create learning communities enhance learning, and support continued class enrollment and participation. In order to do this, we will examine the influence of biologic agents on anxiety, the influence of anxiety on learning and interaction, and methods for reducing the anxiety or uncertainty of online learners and instructors.

Biologic agents and anxiety

Many individuals enrolling in on-line courses for the first time are likely to be experiencing moderate to high levels of anxiety which needs to be addressed in the early stages of the course if substantial learning is to take place. This anxiety may be the result of working with new technology in a learning environment, exposure to a new learning community, and/or the introduction to a new subject. According to Palloff and Pratt (1999), if students can become

comfortable with the technology, they are more likely to experience a sense of psychological well-being, making it more likely that they will participate in the class. As teachers working in a computer-mediated environment, we need to be especially attentive to the concerns and anxieties which students bring to our digital classrooms. In his book, Emotional Intelligence, Goleman (1995), argues that strong emotions such as anxiety can short circuit the brain's ability to take in new information. The explanation for this memory blocking phenomenon can be found in an understanding of how learning occurs. "... circuits from the limbic brain to the prefrontal lobes mean that the signals of strong emotion—anxiety, anger, and the like—can create neural static, sabotaging the ability of the prefrontal lobe to maintain working memory" (p. 27). While it is not our goal to offer an encompassing review of the biological aspects of learning (or not learning), it is important to realize that some students are likely to go into an on-line course already anxious because of prior negative experiences with technology or online courses that can limit or influence their online learning experience. According to Goleman (1995), when the brain anticipates certain incoming information based on previous experiences, it can sometimes lead us to faulty conclusions. "The amygdala senses a sensory pattern of import emerging, it jumps to a conclusion, triggering its reactions before there is full confirming evidence or any confirmation at all" (p. 24). Emotions can also influence the brain's ability to retain information, with research from Siegel (1999) emphasizing the important role emotions play in the brain's ability to remember. Since remembering material is essential if learning is to take place, attention to the role of emotions and learning is necessary in designing on-line courses.

Since the brain also can "jump to conclusions" when responding to feelings that emerge prior to thought, an on-line course that builds in methods to assist students in gaining some early level of satisfaction can create an atmosphere more conducive to community building and thus more conducive to learning. (Goleman, 1995). Because this community is no longer placed-based in the digital world, the re-creation of community in cyberspace is thus an essential part of reducing the uncertainty of the students.

Uncertainty Reduction

Uncertainty reduction theory was first formulated by Berger and Calabrese (1975) to explain the cognitive response of uncertainty that occurs when interacting with others for the first time. In order to reduce this uncertainty, people engage in communication to gain knowledge about others with whom they are interacting. Part of the incentive for reducing uncertainty lies in the perceived gains in one's ability to predict the responses and actions of others. In essence, people are engaging others in communication in order to determine the "who, what, where, why, and how" of the situation, to identify the things they may have in common, and to increase their ability to make predictions about how others will react in certain situations. This uncertainty can come from several sources: self uncertainty involving an inability to describe, predict, or explain our own attitudes or behaviors; partner uncertainty involving an inability to predict the other person's attitudes and behaviors within an interaction; or relationship uncertainty that concerns doubt about the status of the relationship apart from either self or partner (Berger, 1988; Berger & Bradac, 1982; Berger & Gundekunst, 1991). All three of the sources may be relevant to a new student in a computer mediated environment. This motivation to reduce uncertainty exists primarily when participants have an expectation of future interaction, when they have the ability to provide rewards, or when participants behave in some deviant fashion (Berger, 1979). In a text based environment, gathering this information may become more challenging due to the lack of nonverbal cues available (Sproull & Kiesler, 1991). It is this expectation of future interaction in an on-line environment, which motivates student and faculty alike to reduce uncertainty and begin the creation of some form of a digital community.

The basic explanation provided by uncertainty reduction theory proposes that most people respond to anxiety or uncertainty by using passive, active, and/or interactive strategies (Beebe, Beebe, & Ivy, 2001). All three responses will usually occur, at least initially, in the on-line environment. A *passive* strategy might involve observing and gathering important information without interacting. This form is often used when students lurk in the background either never or rarely participating in the on-line discussions. When confronted, these students will often reply that they log in often, read all the posts, but feel inadequate or afraid to post themselves. Often they also respond that all the other students "know" what they are talking about. An *active* strategy may include getting opinions and information from third parties. Students may not rely on the assigned readings or the instructor for clarification, but do extensive reading outside of class in order to appear to be more knowledgeable than they are. In other cases, students may inquire about the experience of others who have taken classes in an online environment, or discuss the situation with their academic advisor. Finally, the third form of uncertainty reduction is an *interactive* strategy which may include getting opinions and information from those most directly involved or those viewed as "experts". Students will often contact the instructor outside of class in order to gather more information or may respond with agreement in support of posts to one or more students in the class who "appear" be knowledgeable on the subject or provide the "right" answer. They may also return to those who have previous experience in this environment.

This is not to say that all students will experience this anxiety or that students will use all three responses to deal with anxiety or uncertainty. Maximum and minimum thresholds for uncertainty may vary by individual and by culture. If the uncertainty is below a student's uncertainty threshold, they may become disinterested, interpret interaction as boring, or may not feel they need to reduce uncertainty through communication. Conversely, if the uncertainty is above the student's maximum threshold, they may not have adequate information to communicate or may feel uncomfortable communicating (Gudykunst & Kim, 1997). Students may thus become either emotionally distant or too emotionally charged to participate in the on-line community's discussions. It is important that the instructor understand why the student has either become somewhat hostile or somewhat disinterested. If either situation is present, then learning and/or interactions may be curtailed or drastically hindered.

According to Gudykunst & Kim (1997), situations that contain a high degree of uncertainty may also lead to a high degree of anxiety. If these feelings escalate beyond the individuals' threshold for anxiety, students may feel so anxious they avoid communicating or withdraw. In addition, when anxiety is above the maximum threshold, people have difficulty processing information (Goss, Neuliep, & O'Hair, 1985). Gudykunst & Kim (1997) argue that effective communication takes place when an individual is below their maximum and above their minimum threshold for uncertainty and anxiety.

Whether or not the feelings of uncertainty are warranted the instructor may be in a position to help the student deal with these emotions. Part of this support can come from providing training and experience with the technology to be used; and creating a container for the class activities

Communication and communities in Cyberspace

As Palloff and Pratt (1999) discuss, the inability to visually interact with one another makes the process of communication in cyberspace more difficult: "We cannot see the facial expressions and body language that help us gauge responses to what is being discussed. We cannot hear voices or tones of voice to convey emotion" (p. 10). This uncertainty stemming from the lack of our usual non-verbal cues in communicating further strengthens the need to create an on-line community where students can become familiar with one another's style of communication. "As

computer-mediated communication deprives us of some of the physical cues of communication and allows for increased self-generated cues that affect our behavior it also adds dimensions that otherwise would not be present" (Palloff & Pratt, 1999, p. 15).

In order to enhance communication, instructors can provide opportunities and structure that may help decrease uncertainty and anxiety involved with working with this new environment, group, or subject. It is important that in the digital classroom, students are allowed the first week or so to interact and gain experience in a situation where no assessment, verbal or written is offered by the instructor. Practicing gives students the confidence to "reprogram" their emotions into one of comfortableness, rather than uncertainty. In addition to allowing students to interact and practice, another important way this anxiety can be reduced is by creating a container for the course so it is very clear to the student what is expected of them and how to obtain the information they need as they maneuver through the class. (Palloff & Pratt, 1999). Part of this container may involve the structure of the course itself (the course website or course support system); clarification of the course objectives and procedures; as well as structure and methods for interacting with other class members and the instructor. By using these methods, the instructor can help the student determine the most effective form of communication as well as allowing them to predict (in most cases) how communication and interaction will take place.

According to Lawler, Thye, & Yoon (2000), as uncertainty about group members and the course itself is reduced, there is an increased expectation of cooperation by others, members become more trusting of other group members, and more willing to participate in ventures that entail risk. Emotion and group cohesion begin to occur which can produce exchanges and a higher level of learning. Thus, it becomes increasingly important that on-line educators work to make the student feel comfortable in their on-line community. The responsibility for the success of the class suddenly extends beyond merely whether or not the instructor can transfer knowledge about a subject to the students and involves how successfully the instructor can help create a learning community where students feel free to interact.

Although Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT) was originally postulated to explain interactions in face to face (FTF) interactions, it has also been tested in the computer mediated environment. Findings by Neuliep and Ryan (1998) are supportive of some, but not all, of the assumptions of URT. While it is not our intent to review the corpus of literature involving URT, these findings do show that (1) requests in initial phases of interactions will conform to social rules and behavioral norms and (2) in later situations, focus turns to attitudes and experience. These finds provide support for the importance for providing clear structure for the initial and subsequent communication to take place.

Another area of concern regarding the translation of material delivered electronically has to do with how communication can occur in a discussion group on-line without our normal emotional and regulatory cues available. Since electronic communication cannot adequately relay the subtle changes in facial expressions and voice tone occurring during delivery of a communication, misinterpretations can more easily occur (Sproull & Kiesler, 1998). The flat one-tone option of the computer lessens our ability to detect subtleties in language and increases the possibility of words and meanings being misinterpreted. This missing emotional data can not yet be conveyed using the limitations of electronic communication (Lewis, Amini, & Lannon, 2000). Here again, clear guidelines and structure can be of benefit.

Conclusion

Even if a successful, cohesive community is formed within the digital classroom, there is no

guarantee that learning has taken place. One of the challenges facing faculty using computer-mediated instruction is the creation of a critical community of inquiry which implies that the participants in the community should work both collaboratively and reflectively. Being an effective teacher in the digital classroom requires us to better understand the cognitive nature of the teaching and learning relationship in an asynchronous text-based digital environment. As Paloff and Pratt (1999) point out, the level of reflection is important and this process needs to be, if necessary, initiated and guided by the instructor. In the on-line community, transformative learning enables the student to move from being a participant to a reflective practitioner. Kolb (1984) points to the reciprocal relationship between experience and learning in his experiential learning model. The digital classroom requires a similar model to connect technology with community with reflection to form a kind of sociotechnical learning environment. Using this model, a prerequisite to creating community would be to address participants' anxiety about engaging in this environment by designing courses that encourage and support high levels of communication. This communication can then build community, which can then serve as a vehicle for lessening uncertainty and move the student toward reflection and learning in a computer mediated environment.

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The Digital Divide: Adult Learners and Cyberspace

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Adult education, much like the Cinderella story, is moving from its former position of stepchild of higher education to a prominent role in web-based distance education (WBDE) university-wide. This study addressed the demands posed by web technologies and the subsequent online services, learning opportunities, flexibility, and challenges for adult learners and educators as adult programs continue to go online. Changes in the "Digital Divide" controversy of the latest adult students' demographic composition, use and ownership of technology, and perceptions of WBDE before and after a two-year university-wide approach were explored in an Adult Degree Program in a southeastern urban university. Of utmost concern was the university-wide decision to require computer access for university admission and the possible impact on the adult minority female population.

Methodology

Methodology includes a multimethod case study approach using email and one on one interviews, focus groups, questionnaires, secondary data analyses, and descriptive and disaggregate quantitative statistical data for 1999 and 2000 adult students, and survey and focus group data from 2001 adult students. Data were organized by enrolled and stop-out students 1999-2000, 2001 enrolled students, gender, and ethnicity and described in Tables 1.1 and 1.2.

Table 1.1 AIS Students by Ethnicity and Gender

1999-2000 2001 Student Participants													
	Male			Female			Total			%			
	Enrolled 1999	Stop 1999	2001										
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				
Caucasian	49	11	19	76	33	22	128	44	42	68.4	73.3	66.7	
Black	11	2	6	36	7	12	48	9	18	25.7	15.0	28.6	
Asian	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0.5		1.6	
Hispanic	2	0	0	3	0	1	5	0	1	2.7			
Nat. Am.	3	1	0	0	3	0	3	4	0	1.6	6.7		

Table 1.2 AIS Students by Age

	1999-2000 Enrolled	1999-2000 Stop-Out	2001 Enrolled			
	(n=187)		(n=60)	n=63)		
	n's	%	n's	%	n's	%
21-24	11	5.9	1	1.7	3	4.8
25-29	37	19.8	3	5.0	7	11.1
30-39	50	26.7	6	10.0	26	41.3
40-49	70	37.4	27	45.0	19	30.2
Over 50	19	10.2	23	38.3	6	9.7

Summary of Enrolled and Stop-out 1999-2000 Findings

Total and sub-group data indicate that students' largely do have accessibility and equity to computers and Internet, although there is a concern with no AIS on-campus computer lab. Technical skills needed for all groups indicate that training would be helpful, although no area produced a majority of participants as an overwhelming need. Student perceptions of web readiness do indicate an underestimation of time needed and the decrease in classmate interaction. The primary concern over interaction and communication was with the instructor as indicated in the interviews and focus group. The total group indicated on the questionnaire an interest in web-based distance education and on-campus courses (n=143).

Differences between enrolled and stop-out students were noted in email accounts, computer use at home, and technical skills needed. The stop-out students have less access, use, and indicate an underestimation of the time requirements for web-based distance education.

Gender differences were noted in computer use at home and keyboarding skills for males lower than females. Females indicated a greater need for time management training than did the males. Although less females owned computers than men, females indicated larger at home use and overall interest in web-based distance education courses.

The largest ethnic differences were indicated in the self-discipline and time management needs, computer access, and technical skills between Caucasian and Black sub-groups. The Black sub-groups reported greater needs for training and equipment. These differences present additional financial aid issues, recruiting and web training for AIS faculty to offer well-designed web course appropriate to each ethnic group's needs.

Comparison of 2001 Enrolled Student Findings

The 2001 enrolled AIS student sample included a larger percentage of 30-39 year old student (41.3%). Ethnic and gender percentages were mostly equivalent to the 1999-2000 enrolled

students (see Tables 1.1 -1.2), although the overall sample was smaller than the 1999-2000. No Native American or Asian population was represented. No data was received from off-campus or stop-out students.

Accessibility-equity variables for the total 2001 enrolled students (n=63) indicate that 86% owned web-capable computers which was a 24% increase over the 1999-2000 sample. Computer use at home increased to 91% demonstrating a 27% increase, while computer use at work increased by 5% to 33%. Each part of the construct of "accessibility-equity" enlarged which suggests that the adult learners in this population have adequate computer access suitable for web-based distance education (Flowers, 2000; IHEP, 2000).

Technical skills needed for the total group (n=63) were defined as keyboarding (27%), word processing (24%), email (18%), web navigation (30%), time management (25%), and information literacy (21%). These percentages indicate a slight increase in keyboarding (+7%) and word processing needs (+5%) suggesting that the 2001 students are more alert to the basic software utility and fluency needed for online courses (USDOE, 1997; Wagner, 1995).

Email needs of (-1%) indicated no significant changes from the former group. Web navigation need decreased by 10% likely due to the overall computer accessibility and use increase. The population is becoming more computer literate and comfortable as addressed by the United States Department of Education (USDOE) goal 3. Time management needs decreased by 6% possibility due to the same phenomenon of computer and Internet usage (Near, 1999). The decrease in need for information literacy (-22%) could be indicative of the lack of focus on this topic in recent times. A major concern over this university's use of online courses during 1999-2000 was the quality and validity of online information (Woodruff, Lauderdale, & Flowers, 1999) often stressed by Adult Interdisciplinary Studies (AIS) faculty.

Readiness needs were defined as needing more time (6%), requiring more self-discipline (48%), benefiting from training in time management (40%), gaining personal control over one's learning (35%), and the decrease in need for classmate interactions (41%). All areas decreased for the 2001 students except awareness of the decrease in classmate interaction (+4%).

Group Comparison Summary

Data comparison for the 1999-2000 and 2001 enrolled student groups indicate a definite increase in technical skills for Black AIS students. Caucasian male students' technical needs were greater in 2001 in specific keyboarding and software needs that are critical for success and ease in all university level work on-campus or online (Wagner, 1995). Black females had fewer computer skills needs than Black males. The low Black male sample size dramatically skewed the results, however, they are commensurate with the AIS enrollment data demographics. White females' technical needs remained consistent with the original group still indicating specific training needs critical to distance education success and on-campus success.

Differences in ethnicity dramatically decreased from 1999 to 2001 suggesting that the "digital divide" may be narrowing. Black female needs remained significant to web-based distance education success in readiness variables, although, access and equity were dramatically improved further supporting a need and readiness for formal training.

Data from the 2001 group more closely aligns with the findings from the actual web students and web-based distance education literature than did the 1999-2000 group. This could be

attributed to cultural awareness of online demands or personal Web use experience (Chizmar & Walbert, 1999).

Although AIS student accessibility is increasing, this study suggests that further attention to adult student needs is critical before the university enforces a computer access policy for enrollment. On-campus adult labs for training could facilitate student technical skills furthering improving online course success and reducing online and on-campus attrition rates.

Conclusions

This study demonstrates the need for further research into the emerging adult web-based distance education program design, web-based program evaluation, utility-focused needs assessment, reduction of attrition rates, and the demand for systemic instructional design and development. Before higher education is truly ready for "Cinderella's ball," it must be resolved to ask and address the "hard questions" from all stakeholders concerning the needs for adult web-based distance education (WBDE) learners (Ehrmann, 1999).

Higher education must address the inequities of the "Digital Divide," confront the constraints imposed by Luddites and laggards, and demand principle-based distance learning. Twenty-first century lifelong learners will continue to demand comprehensive quality education on-campus and online--if not from the Academy, then from for-profit campus-free universities. Higher education must take a closer look at itself and ask the "right questions" from the "right stakeholders" and continue to move toward creating a true learning organization, before Peter Drucker's warnings of obsolescence comes true (Senge, 1990; Drucker, 1995; Green, 1999b). Until a systemic change occurs through strategic holistic planning, Distance Education may long for the "stepchild" days it knew for the last two centuries when life was simpler, there was more time to reflect, and there were fewer global issues.

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"The Changing Face of Theological Education for Adult Learners"

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Are we witnessing a paradigmatic shift in theological education? In the early church, and through centuries of Christendom leading up to the Reformation, the monasteries were the keepers of theological and scholarly arts. Interestingly, "earliest monasticism was a lay movement and somewhat anticlerical, being a protest against the increasing bureaucracy in the church and clerical domination." By the time of the Reformation and Counter-Reformation, theological education shifted to a new locus within the universities and seminaries. This latter expression has been the dominant form of theological education pervading throughout the modern era. In the current post-Christendom era, however, there are centers for theological education for adult learners dotting the landscape in the United States and other countries. These new ventures meet the educational needs of church professionals as well as address the growth of theological interest among laity. They also suggest that the locus for theological education is gravitating toward smaller grassroots communities of learning.

The Struggle of Witness

I began the essay with a question: "Are we witnessing a paradigmatic shift in theological education?" The Greek word for witness, *marturia*, implies struggle. Theologians have recognized its particular emphasis on struggle in the context of political and cultural realities which are not always receptive to the message, or the messenger.

Theologian Richard Shaull, in his introduction to Freire's classic *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, connects this political and cultural struggle to the nature of education: "There is no such thing as a neutral educational process. Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate the integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity to it, *or* it becomes "the practice of freedom," the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world."

It is certainly clear that Freire struggled (witnessed) for his own educational values. Some of his moving testimonies in his *Letters to Cristina* bear out the man of struggle who was responsible for the shaping of a enduring vision of adult higher education. This is often forgotten when Freire's ideas are reduced only to their educational "method." Freire, in addition to being an innovative educator, was also a liberation theologian engaged with a cultural and political crisis. His *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* was written in the context of dehumanization and a pervading "culture of silence" in Brazil, for which his own witness would lead to his own bearing scars from exile and oppression. The pedagogy of the oppressed, in fact, not only invites people to recognize the political and cultural injustices that inhibit people in the processes of education (*conscientizacao*), but to engage in the process of the transformation of that system for the liberation not only of the oppressed but their oppressors as well. As Freire underscores, this is not a task for sectarian fanaticism, but for those committed to radical action.

For these reasons I have been drawn to the radical insights of Stephen Brookfield and Jack Mezirow, among others, who seek to translate this movement into the American scene. Brookfield seeks to bring the dynamics of critical reflection to bear on the cultural barriers of "the culture of silence, the culture of individualism, and the culture of secrecy." Brookfield puts his finger on the dynamics that affect many who work and learn in environments that inhibit growth and critical reflection, that set up standards of

evaluation that reduce collaboration, and that seed distrust and dishonesty about "one's private dilemmas, uncertainties, and frustrations." Brookfield's radical (not sectarian) accent here on critical reflection finds added impetus in the Frankfurt School of Critical Social Theory (Adorno, Habermas, and Marcuse), and several educational theorists including Henry Giroux, Antonio Gramsci, and Stanley Aronowitz. One might also add Jack Mezirow, who regards such critical engagement with culture at the heart of his own Transformation Theory. "The justification for much of what we know and believe, our values and our feelings, depends on the context--biographical, historical, cultural--in which they are embedded. . . . Learning is understood as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience as a guide to future action. . . . Transformative learning, especially when it involves subjective reframing, is often an intensely threatening emotional experience in which we have to become aware of both the assumptions undergirding our ideas and those supporting our emotional responses to the need to change."

Witnessing by Conscientizing and Radicalizing: the Paradigmatic Shift in Theological Education

In October, 1998, I was granted an opportunity to travel to Australia for presentations and discussions on the vocation of the laity. That visit came at a point of transition in my own personal vocation, from being the Dean of the Adult Learning Center of Capital University in Dayton, to my new position/calling as Dean of Lutheran School of Theology in St. Louis and Pastor of Holy Trinity Lutheran Church. Interestingly, a strong interest was shared by these new friends and colleagues in Australia to learn more about the Lutheran School of Theology and how they might develop such a program themselves. The question was raised whether or not they could develop a satellite school of theology in the Eastern cities of Sidney or Brisbane, where there are Lutheran communities and interested adult learners and potential ministerial candidates—all of whom are required to attend the only Lutheran seminary located in the southern province city of Adelaide. My answer was "why not?"

In retrospect, I can think of some answers to my own question that might raise prohibitions. Clearly the greatest obstacle that exists to such a venture—not uncommon to any who have been involved in adult higher education—is the acceptance of such programs by the so-called "traditional" faculty of the seminary itself. Instead of embracing these centers as places where adults are engaging in lifelong learning about theology, there are the voiced concerns about academic quality and control and the unvoiced fears that it may be "taking students away" from their campus and program. Secondly, there are the concerns from the wider church which is slow in accepting postmodern/post-Christendom attitudes and ideas—hanging on to the ideals of institutional values and the "hallowed [though sometimes empty] halls" of their campuses.

The Lutheran School of Theology, while not spared similar criticisms and concerns (as will be evident below), nonetheless has adopted a mission statement that looks toward the changing face of theological education in a postmodern/post-Christendom era:

Lutheran School of Theology:

A Ministry of the Metro Saint Louis Coalition of ELCA Congregations

is a coming together of theological teachers and learners

from the Coalition's congregations,

doing theological study together

in ways that may not be available to congregations by themselves

**to enrich their own ministries in those congregations and in their lives in the world,
employing in the instructional program a variety of curricula, credit and non-credit, intellectually
challenging as well as practical, all at a high level of excellence,
using the resources also of other theological and educational institutions in the area,
always rooted and centered in the scriptural and confessional Word of God
as it speaks to our time.**

There are several unique theses within this mission statement that need to be lifted out and unpacked; but I would particulate highlight the following to understand on how we are seeking to raise awareness and take radical action in our community of adult learners:

1. Lutheran School of Theology (LST) is "a ministry of the Metro Saint Louis Coalition of ELCA [Evangelical Lutheran Church in America] congregations." As such, it is essentially a grassroots educational venture, not controlled by the institutional hierarchies of the ELCA, nor by its synodical agencies. The Metro St. Louis Coalition, comprised of 44 Lutheran congregations in Missouri and Illinois, was organized in the early 1980's largely for collaborative efforts in social agency. In 1988, when the ELCA was formed, the congregations of the Metro Coalition unanimously requested that the synodical boundaries be established to include their communities on both sides of the Mississippi River as part one synod. That request, however, was denied by the institutional planners, and two synods (one in Missouri and one in Illinois) were formed. Now sooner had I arrived at my new post in St. Louis was I invited to lunch by one of the Missouri synodical representatives. Among this representatives pressing subjects in our conversation was how LST could be absorbed into this synod's geographical ministries, at the exclusion of its congregational partners (and learners) in Illinois. While I have the responsibility of relating to these synodical bureaucrats, I also have some degree of autonomy (and freedom) in that I am not directly responsible to them.
2. The Lutheran School of Theology is governed by a praxis that reflects collaboration and mutuality. As a ministry of the Metro Coalition, the school's decision making is shaped by an active board (called the Committee on Theological Education) of clergy and lay representatives, including student learners in the program. Whereas many boards of higher education meet only annually, and only then to ratify decisions that have already been made, LST's board meets monthly to wrestle and discuss the unique struggles and opportunities for the school. While there are sub-committees made of board members which reflect on matters of curriculum, public relations, and finances, all of these are openly and freely discussed at the meeting of the board. Our administrative staff (myself as Dean, and the school's Executive Administrator, a lay woman), furthermore, is not hierarchically arranged. Both of us are equally accountable to the school's board, and both of us report to the board directly. Our job descriptions have some overlap, such that we necessarily engage in mutuality and discussion in the tasks of running the school. While all of this can create some institutional hassle in decision making, it also helps to foster an environment that is inclusive and liberating.
3. Lutheran School of Theology has an agreement with ELCA seminaries to offer courses for academic credit. Not all the courses LST offers are for graduate (Master's level) courses. But those that are worked out through arrangements of collaboration between our school and the seminaries which grant accreditation. We have been fortunate to have good working relations with the sponsoring seminaries, including those locally in the St. Louis area. Interestingly, we have had more frustration from the church-related agencies, such as the candidacy committees and synodical staff representatives, who

"approve" candidates for ministry. While we are working in the direction of opening better channels of communication with these agencies, we also recognize that some of the problems are systemic to the way the ELCA has yet to migrate out of its own Christendom models of ministry and community.

4. Lutheran School of Theology is ecumenically active in its course offerings. Each term we offer education workshops and courses that specifically draw us into dialogue with ecumenical partners from the Catholic, Episcopal, and Reformed traditions. We have also engaged in such work with the Greek Orthodox tradition. While our institutional churches have adopted formulas of agreement and relationship, they have shown poor signs of following through in breaking the barriers of denominational functioning. LST has consistently fostered and nurtured educational enrichment that draws our communities together. In my own work, I have met regularly with Deans and colleagues at the Catholic and Episcopal Archdioceses, with my counter parts at the Reformed-based Eden Theological Seminary, and with faculty and representatives at the Catholic-based Aquinas Theological Institute. Our school shares in library privileges with these institutions, and our students themselves are increasingly representative of a diverse, ecumenical background.

5. "If you build it, they will come." While efforts are underway to broaden our marketing, one of the joys we have found in LST is that, even with minimal marketing efforts, enrollment has steadily increased, with over 400 adult learners last year alone. This suggests that there is an avid interest (thirst!) for this kind of offering in the greater St. Louis area.

This paradigmatic shift in theological education, which I believe LST represents, is part of a larger trend. Last year's gathering of the Society for the Advancement of Continuing Education for Ministry (SACEM) in Atlanta brought together hundreds of representatives from such schools of study from all over North America. Some of them are extensions of seminary programs, ranging from regionally-visiting instructors to the technologically-based learning of the Fisher's Net. Others are regional church-endorsed lay programs of theology. One of the more internationally organized programs of study is the Episcopalian-based "Education for Ministry," offering small community-based learning in eleven countries. More recently, I have been named the convener of the regional ELCA Cabinet of Lifelong Learning, bringing together schools from Kansas and Missouri who are engaged in the lifelong learning of adult lay leaders and church professional-ministerial candidates.

To be sure, there is a noticeable burgeoning of spirituality throughout this country and throughout major sections of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Regrettably, much of this movement is driven by fundamentalist traditions that encourage a theology of prosperity closely tied to the economic successes of the United States. Still, the question of a South African lay representative at the International Association of Mission Studies is provocative: "While the mainline [church] is opting for the poor, why are the poor opting for Pentecostalism?" Liberationist Clodovis Boff noted how his own Catholic church has socially, existentially, and pastorally abandoned the poor, and right in Freire's back yard—Brazil! Nevertheless, the task of bringing quality critical reflection to bear in these communities was at the heart of Freire's vision—and that vision ought not be abandoned, for the sake of the poor, nor for the sake of world. When it comes to planting seeds for such grassroots endeavors toward changing the faces of those seeking lifelong learning in theological education, the question I raised with my Australian friends is still valid: "why not?" To be sure, there may be struggles along the way toward reshaping the culture of critical reflection. But the joys of learning and growing make it worth the struggle.

Abstract

"The Eye of Contemplation: Integrating Spiritual Empiricism with Adult Teaching/Learning"

Dr. David C. Trott - and - Br. John Paige

According to Ken Wilber in his book, *The Marriage of Sense and Soul*, "Empiricism has historically been given an extremely narrow meaning, not of experience in general, but of sensory experience only." And, contends Wilber, this narrow meaning of empiricism has led to an ever-widening dissociation of the sensory, mental, and spiritual domains that otherwise represent legitimate human experiences and ways of knowing the world.

Unfortunately, scientific empiricism has ruled the day in Western culture and egregiously eclipsed the richness of interior ways of knowing. The net effect as Wilber states, is having reduced to a Flatland, "the contours of the Divine".

This session will engage participants in identifying the faces of the interior domain such as: insights, sense of self, consciousness, compassion, love, spirituality, self-less service, faith, values, morals, responsibility, concern, illumination, beauty, and dreams. Furthermore, this session will demonstrate teaching/learning practices that have been successfully demonstrated with adult learners in higher education. For example, service-learning projects, reflective journals, and mission courses based upon specific Catholic social teachings are only a few of many concrete examples of curriculum development across disciplines that intentionally raise deep inner sources of knowing and making meaning to the level of conscious awareness and action.

The Trouble with Systemic Racism

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Pauline: Every time I try to begin this paper, my words look ridiculous and inadequate and I delete them. Why did I ever propose this topic? I don't want to stir up feelings of resentment and guilt. But that's the problem I see—we avoid talking about racism and how it affects our classes, our programs, our relationships because it often makes the situation worse. This is important.

A year ago, just before commencement, a woman planning to graduate began to demand attention. She was meeting with her academic advisor, who told her repeatedly that she needed to finish an incomplete by revising a draft of a Prior Learning Assessment paper. Without this, she was four credits short and would not be able to participate in the ceremony. The advisor, a white male, is a patient, kind soul who goes out of his way to help his advisees, and I knew he was doing so with her. She was an African American woman in her mid to late 40's. She had already invited her extended family to graduation, requested extra tickets from the marshall, and planned a big party at her home. Why couldn't she revise the draft and turn it in?

Not only that, she had met with the professor who was insisting on the revision, saying that the topic would help her in her work setting (a prison where she worked as an intake worker). The professor also is one known to me as caring, thorough, and kind. Surely, we were doing everything we could.

The situation continued on, day after day, until the woman finally came in to see her advisor for one last meeting, and to see the professor immediately afterward. I decided to join the advisor, and found myself backing up his advice to her. It was frustrating to see that she was not hearing what we were saying. She was in tears as she left. An hour or so later, I left my office area and passed through the lobby and noticed she was sitting there. I continued on my errand, but on my way back decided to join her. I began by commiserating with her and asking about her family.

As tears rolled down her cheeks, she told me about her family, and finally added, "You just don't want me to graduate. It's just like Decatur." I realized she was talking about the teenage boys, African American, who had been expelled from school for fighting in the football stands. Jesse Jackson had gone to Decatur to lead demonstrations and to engage the school system in dialogue around the issue. News analysts were beginning to relate the story to an expectation prevalent in the black community, that the white community will find a way to prevent them from completing their education.

Shocked to find myself faced with her accusing look, I realized that I had completely missed this part of the drama unfolding before us. We talked about this for a while, and she gradually was able to stop crying and go to see the professor. She did not graduate in May. But she did eventually revise the paper and completed her degree in August, missing the ceremony. She said she was proud of the paper and that it would help her in her job. I don't know if she meant it or if she was trying to make me feel better.

Both of us were participating in the perpetuation of this expectation and were both affected by

what I've come to recognize as systemic racism, something that is sometimes difficult to detect, especially for the dominant group in society. Yet it exists, and we must get better at seeing it when something happens to our students, staff, and/or faculty. We hope our session will help us open our eyes to the many ways that systemic racism continues to be present, and to find ways to help ourselves, our students, our faculty and staff, acknowledge it, listen to one another so we can understand what has happened, reduce our levels of defensiveness and embarrassment, and find ways to continue to relate as friends as we try to bring about change.

We will use a chapter from W.E.B. DuBois, *The Souls of Black Folk*, to demonstrate the depth of systemic racism. The chapter is called "Of the coming of John." I'll try to summarize it briefly: Really, there are two Johns—one white and one black. The black John is easy going, laughs easily, and is loved by everyone in the black community. His mother decides to send him off to school, and the whole community proudly sent him off at the train station. They couldn't wait for his triumphant return. Everything will be better when John comes back. White John is the son of the Judge, a leader in the community. White John is sent away so that school can "make something of him." The Judge expects that black John will be spoiled by education and says so to his sister, a waitress.

Black John is not prepared for college, and is eventually expelled. This sobers him from his easy going ways, and he returns months later, determined to succeed in college. He graduates after much effort, and has become a liberally educated young man who enjoys the thought that life has opened up for him. He decides to attend a concert to see what the white folks are doing there, finds himself listening raptly as his soul swells with the music. When it ends, the usher makes him leave the theater, because white John (coincidentally at the same concert) did not want a black man to sit near his girl friend. Black John leaves, full of resentment and frustration.

He decides to return home and sends word that he is on his way. The entire black community turns out to greet him. But black John is shocked at how shabby everything looks, and his reserved, short comments offend. The black community, bewildered, decides he is no longer one of them. Black John goes to the Judge to ask for a job teaching in the black school. The Judge agrees to try him out when black John promises not to put ideas of equality in the heads of the black pupils. White John comes home to the Judge and the whole white community is proud of him. But white John is contemptuous of the town and lets everyone know he wants to leave.

The postmaster comments to the Judge that black John is "livening things up at the darky school." White John comments that black John tried to sit next to his white girlfriend at the concert. The Judge is angry, goes to the school and tells John he can no longer teach. Black John is frustrated and angry.

White John wanders around town, longing to leave, and sees black John's sister, the waitress. He forces her to a nearby wooded area, and black John sees them together. Black John kills white John with a heavy stick. At the end of the chapter, words hint that black John will be lynched.

The chapter illustrates both the hope and the devastating disappointments present in the town and the racial dynamics. Both the white community and the black community are active in perpetuating and maintaining a system of racism. The white community cannot accept a young black man as educated and can achieve at a level equal to or even better than a young white man. The black community both wants the black man to be their savior and to continue to be the person they have always known—don't change. Boredom is the plague of the white John, while resentment and anger is the plague of black John. It is a short chapter—only 17 pages. Yet it is packed with insight that was relevant in 1903 when it was first published, and is still relevant today.

Isaac: Following my reading, here are some suggestions of what I think we can add to our dialogue. These four issues affect student, staff, or faculty alike regardless of your race. As actors in the play of life, we face all or some of the challenges highlighted here at one time or the other. I want to make four points:

1. Misguided perceptions (bigotry) exist on both sides as a result of 'hand down' stories, media bias, or just mere ignorance.
2. "It's okay as long as you are dependent on the system" mentality. Once you are independent and able to make decisions without much 'baby sitting' then you have 'crossed the line.'
3. Divide and rule mentality. Pitching a tent with one over the other, in an attempt to isolate the influential one; relegate his/her source of strength and support system, and render him/her as ineffective and incapable to handle any responsibility.
4. Maintain "the doctrine of inequality among races." Those holding this view cannot handle a successful minority person. Every attempt is made to destroy/discredit using the opposite sex or finance platform or the like to get the job done. This final point is illustrated by DuBois: "...I knew your father, John, he belonged to my brother, and he was a good Nigger. Well---well, are you going to be like him, or are you going to try to put fool ideas of rising and equality into these folks' heads, and make them discontented and unhappy?" (p.198), and: "...The white people of Altamaha are not spending their money on black folks to have their heads crammed with impudence and lies." Some still hold this ideology of one race superiority over the other. (p.200)

Pauline: It would be easy to dismiss DuBois' story as something that happened a long time ago. Yet since April, 2001, several stories have made the national news: A 19 year old black man is shot and killed as he runs away by white police officers in Cincinnati and the black community riots. A commentator says "You'll find that kind of maddening, simmering rage everywhere you find black people in the United States. It is the rage that comes from living in a society where every day there are humiliating reminders of one's debased status. (Bob Herbert, New York Times, 4/19/01, p. A25). Another story tells about the trial of "Puff Daddy," accused of shooting a woman in a crowded night club. The jury acquits him, but the discussion so upsets the jurors that they report not being able to sleep for days after the trial concluded. Black jurors thought it was self defense. Others thought anyone foolish enough to draw a gun in a crowded nightclub deserved punishment for flouting the "rule of law." Some believed the testimony of the police, others did not, shouting "remember Mr. Diallo (the unarmed black immigrant who was shot to death in 1999 by four police officers. "He was shot 41 times" (New York Times, 4/12/01, p.A25).

Houston A. Baker, Jr., has written a book called *Turning South Again: Rereading Booker T.* (Duke U. Press). He says that to be black in the U.S. amounts to a prison sentence.

From slavery through segregation, he points out, blacks
were physically confined, first held against their will on
plantations and then relegated to black communities. Today,
he argues, the confinement of blacks continues. Only now,
instead of slave quarters and the backs of buses, they inhabit
jails and public housing projects.

Or else, he writes more insidiously, blacks are psychologically constrained, trapped in anxiety-ridden relationships with white culture. 'American history,' he concludes, 'thus reads out, in black-majority vocabularies, as *enslavement, incarceration, imprisonment.*'

"It's not that white academics don't work extraordinarily hard," said Mr. Baker, impeccably turned out in a gray wool suit and tie. "But what they have that I lack is a sense of leisure, an absence of endangerment, a look of being unconcerned that at any moment they could die." (New York Times, review by Emily Eakin, 5/5/01, p.A15.)

While I was still reeling from this review, another column written by Leonard Pitts, a syndicated columnist based in Washington, D.C., appeared. The heading declared "Spare me all of the white guilt about black history." As I read on, the words bounced around worse than a racket ball and I tried to follow his point. "Here we go again. Another day, another white man who thinks I hate him." (Well, don't you? How can I hold my head up after the blast from Houston Baker?)

Pitts is tired of white guilt. He is not surprised by the defensiveness aroused by hearing the history of black America as an indictment of white America. What he hopes for is some "middle ground of simple human compassion...."

It's tiresome to hear people deny truth that, in any other context, they would consider obvious. Namely that we are all shaped by history. All challenged by it, ennobled by it, lifted and stained by it. That yesterday informs today....

Because remembering is obligation—ask the survivors of the Holocaust. Remembering is how we honor the past, challenge the present and admonish the future.

If that makes you uneasy, maybe you ought to ask yourself why. If it makes you holler accusations, maybe you ought to

wonder about that, too.... (Chicago Tribune, 6/26/01)

I hope we can find something in this to guide us as we think together about what happens in our classes when we try to bring about transformation by insisting that we hear something that activates our guilt or embarrassment. Can we set guidelines to help each other? Such as: work with the person who is challenging you with something new; realize you are not in the power seat. Stop, listen, step back. White people should not have to define every issue. Give people time and help to process feelings. Encourage each other to acknowledge what we are feeling and hear to each other. We honor each other when we do that.

We've thrown out a lot of comments and used several sources to make the case that systemic racism exists. We've tried to suggest some guidelines to help us continue to talk. We hope our time together will give you a chance to tell us what you are remembering, what you are thinking about, and how you approach this difficult topic.

[While the paper was written by Pauline and Isaac, both Deborah and Velda contributed to discussions that led to the finished product, and they will help facilitate discussion as we meet together.]

W.E.B.DuBois, "Of the coming of John," Chapter XIII, in *The Souls of Black Folk*, Penguin Books, 1989 (originally published in 1903).

Service Learning in Adult Accelerated Programs

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About Regis University and the School for Professional Studies

Regis University is a coeducational Jesuit Catholic university that includes Regis College, which serves the traditional age student, the School for Health Care Professions that serves both traditional and adult undergraduate and graduate students, and the School for Professional Studies, which serves adult learners. The School for Professional Studies (SPS) offers a variety of undergraduate and graduate degree programs to over 10,000 adult learners both on-line and at seven different campus locations across Colorado and in Las Vegas, NV. Courses offered are conducted in an accelerated format of 5 or 8-week terms and are generally offered on weekends or evenings. Most courses are taught by part-time or affiliate faculty with expertise in their given field.

Service Learning

Service learning joins two complex concepts: community action, the "service" and efforts to learn from that action and connect what is learned to existing knowledge, the "learning." (Stanton, 1999). Community service becomes service learning when it is connected to classroom curriculum and activities and contains opportunities for students to reflect on their experiences, thus allowing for consciousness raising and systemic change.

Why Service Learning?

While we classroom teachers typically believe that we are dealing only with the cognitive side of student development, the learning process is inescapably cognitive and affective (Astin, 1999). Service learning offers students the opportunity for constructive communication in community, responsibility for others and a realistic understanding of oneself. Service Learning also offers a potent and engaged pedagogy consonant with the long and successful history of Jesuit education, consistent with the central tenets of Ignation spirituality, and compatible with the Jesuit focus on educating students for a just society (Fleming, 1999). It remains central to the mission of Jesuit education to prepare all students with the skills and knowledge necessary to be successful in society, but also provide them with the tools necessary to engage in social transformation by providing a deeper understanding of the historical, social, cultural, political and economic contexts of important societal issues. The Society of Jesus has always sought to imbue students with values that transcend the goals of money, fame, and success. We want graduates who will be leaders concerned about society and the world in which they live...In short,

we want our graduates to be leaders in service. That has been the goal of Jesuit education since the sixteenth century. It remains so today. (Kolvenbach, 1989)

The Office of Service Learning

Service Learning programs have existed in Regis College and the School for Health Care Professions since the late 1980's and mid 1990's respectively. In January 2000, the School for Professional Studies implemented its Office of Service Learning to work with faculty and students in providing service learning opportunities for adult learners in accelerated programs.

Staffed by a full-time Coordinator, the SPS Office of Service Learning supports faculty, staff, and students who are interested in curricular or co-curricular service/service learning. Because service learning is a new concept for programs which serve adults in accelerated formats, much of the first year of the program was devoted to defining and marketing the program to its more than 400 faculty, staff and thousands of students both within the School for Professional Studies and the university community through newsletters, brochures and its web site located at www.regis.edu/service/sps.

The office links faculty with agencies whose needs are compatible with their learning objectives for a given course. The program maintains a database of service agencies and sites and consults with faculty on site selection, syllabi revision, student orientation, the design of reflection activities and assessment/evaluation.

Service Learning Program

The unique nature of the School for Professional Studies determines much flexibility in the types and implementation of programs, training, and evaluation is needed and that the program must look decidedly different from the more traditional programs in other areas of the university. For example, some of the direct service opportunities include opportunities for entire families to be involved in the activity or activities take place on weekends or evenings when students are less likely to be working.

Edward Zlotkowski in a recent article in *Change* states "In other words, our failure to move in the direction of a more comprehensive, multi-faceted approach to service-learning may leave our attempts at community partnering too fragmented to achieve meaningful social results. Thus, failure to achieve greater integration would not only be academically shortsighted but also morally indefensible." The SPS Service Learning Program has therefore defined service learning as a comprehensive model for civic engagement that includes numerous possibilities, methods and forms of service including but not limited to Direct Service, the crux of which is most often that students are required to physically be at the service site or otherwise have direct contact with a client or program participant, advocacy which involves acting on behalf of another individual, group or cause, consciousness raising which is considered a primary goal of Service Learning and community-based research another form of indirect service that involves students assisting an organization or cause by conducting research relevant to the issue.

First Year Activities in the School for Professional Studies

During the first year of the program four different areas of implementation have emerged – institutionally designed courses that have been suggested or largely designed for the purpose of including a service learning component, faculty initiated courses in which faculty have included a service learning component on their own with little help from the Office of Service Learning, individualized service learning opportunities for students to complete undergraduate

capstone or graduate projects with local non-profit agencies, and co-curricular service opportunities for faculty, staff and students that are not associated with the academic curriculum.

Institutionally Designed Service Learning Courses

Initially the Program Coordinator along with faculty began identifying courses that were being revised. One such course was *Intermediate Composition*, which teaches students the understanding and skills necessary to write clear coherent, purposeful prose. The course was revised so that an optional direct service activity at a local organization took place during a class session. Students use this common service experience as the subject of some of the writings required for the course. Students in two sections in the Denver metro area spent the time at a short-term homeless shelter interacting with residents and helping with tasks such as serving dinner and playing games with children. Students in Ft. Collins spent a class session servings meals at a local organization. Students at another campus prepared a plan and analysis of the implementation of service learning in EN203 at various non-profit agencies that did not require direct service at an agency.

Introduction to Marketing studies macro and micro marketing systems including marketing's role in the global economy and marketing in the United States emphasizing the development of marketing strategies. A local organization and an instructor agreed to use this opportunity for students to complete a project to assist the agency in developing a marketing plan. Students were required to visit the agency and work closely with the Director to gain information about current marketing practices and desired outcomes. When the students completed their recommendations, the ideas were presented to the agency in a formal meeting at the last class session.

The *Service Oriented Field Experience* (SOFE) is a graduate level course in the Master of Non Profit management program that exposes students to international non-profit sector and service. Taught in conjunction with Asociacion Nuestros Ahijado in Guatemala this on-line course includes a four-week introduction using asynchronous forum, e-mail and reading assignments. The students then participate in a highly structured weeklong service trip to Guatemala and El Salvador to study social justice and economic issues while serving as part of a work team.

Faculty initiated Service Learning Courses

Faculty with ideas about integrating service learning are encouraged to investigate the most effective means of meeting course objectives through direct service, advocacy or consciousness raising and actively utilize the SPS program to find community partners and resources.

Group Dynamics provides a comprehensive overview of communications group theories and applications, specifically emphasizing group formation, roles, goals leadership and conflict

management as they apply to group dynamics. Students in one section of this course were divided into two groups whose task was to design and implement a service activity. Students collected hundreds of books for a children's home and discarded over 30 bags of trash in a clean up of a local park. Several residents near the park also took part in the clean up. During the second semester, students volunteered at a pancake breakfast and collected items that were donated to a local animal shelter.

Public Relations studies the history, purpose and process of public relations. It looks closely at public relations tools and practices such as conducting a public relations program, setting up a news conference, establishing and running a speaker's bureau, producing a brochure, etc. Students did individual projects, several for non-profit agencies in their communities.

A faculty member teaching *Marketing* initiated a service-learning component in his introductory course. Students were divided into groups and required to develop a marketing plan for agencies. As with the other Marketing class, ideas were shared in a meeting with key staff of the agencies.

Peace and Justice in Catholic Thought is a study of the sources and influences of Catholic social teaching, focusing on such themes as liberation theology, economic justice, war and peace, and workplace rights. In this course, students participated in individual service activities designed to address major peace and justice issues in modern society. The reflections on service were the basis of many of the written assignments.

Introductory Statistics introduces probability, distribution and moment generating functions, correlation and regression among other statistical analysis tools. In one section of this course, demographic data from a local is used to help illustrate many points and raise student consciousness about the community.

Individualized Service Learning

All School for Professional Studies students are required to complete a capstone or professional culminating project which demonstrates the successful acquisition of knowledge in the major program of study. Students seeking professional projects or capstone projects with an interest in community service are encouraged to consult with the Office of Service Learning to match their needs with those of a community agency. During the first year of the service learning program 12 students completed culminating projects with local non-profit agencies. Activities include students in the Master of Science in Management program conducting action based research looking at organizational issues relating to program growth, leadership transition, and staff hiring; undergraduate business students working with Victim Offender Reconciliation Program (VORP) in Denver; and Master of Science in Computer Information Technology students networking computers and building databases for various non-profit agencies, including a medical history database for people with disabilities and installing networks at a local schools including Regis University, which has prompted the creation of a community technology program to utilize even more students in the future.

A proposed Guided Independent Study, portfolio, and extended study/4th credit option are also possibilities for individualized programs that are being examined. Each of these represent opportunities for students to gain academic credit for service that they may currently be involved with if it may successfully be tied to the curriculum.

Co-curricular Service Activities

Service opportunities for faculty, staff and students not associated with the academic curriculum have been made available. The SPS Office of Service Learning maintains information on over 30 non-profit community organizations in the Denver metro area, Colorado Springs, Boulder and Ft. Collins and keeps updated information on community service events and has also been involved in promoting several service activities. This information is posted on bulletin boards on campus, on the SPS Service Learning website at www.regis.edu/service/sps, and is available upon request from the Office of Service Learning. As a result several staff members have located volunteer opportunities for requirements for themselves and their families. Some departments have also incorporated a volunteer service for faculty/staff as a team-building activity.

What we've learned

The practice of Service Learning among adult students is relatively new and its focus has primarily been on adults in traditional educational programs (primarily community colleges). Regis is breaking new ground in implementing a service learning program for adults in accelerated programs. As such, we seek to answer a number of qualitative questions leading to new research models in adult education and how students apply their Regis experience. We essentially want to know if educating for social justice via service learning is useful to adult learners by asking several questions some of which have been touched upon in the first year of the program include:

In what ways do adults immediately apply service learning to workplace, personal lives and society?

Such applications are certainly not limited to the affective, nor are they only the result of direct service activities. For one student, learning about local demographic data in her statistics class prompted an interest in a statistical comparison of state mandated achievement scores and socioeconomic status in a given area. She found that there was a direct correlation between these factors and was prompted, as a parent, to speak out against the then proposed school "grading system."

In some cases, the student was able to learn skills that helped them to add a greater impact in a given area. A student in the Public Relations class selected as a problem to investigate, the number of traffic accidents along a busy street in her community. In class she learned about creating brochures and ways to increase public knowledge and awareness. As a result, she launched a successful public service campaign that led to changing the timing of traffic signals at a busy intersection that was found to be the cause of the hazardous condition.

Many adult students are already involved in their communities. How will the Regis experience enable them to reflect and further grow upon these experiences?

Reflection is a necessary component of service learning. We have found that through presentations (as in Marketing, Group Dynamics, Public Relations) and through assigned papers (as in EN203, Peace and Justice in Catholic Thought) students are required to reflect upon their service, not just as a personal activity, but within an academic discipline and have overcome in many ways what Whitehead (1929) calls the inert knowledge problem. Many of

these students report a new commitment to community service as a result.

Are adults already in positions of influence such that service learning experiences through Regis have a more immediate and sustainable impact?

While it is certainly not true that all students hold positions of influence within their companies, we have found that many of those who do are very willing to get them involved. For example, a student who is employed by Safeway Corporation has involved her company in making regular food donations to the shelter at which she served. Another was able to get his employer to "adopt" the agency for a service activity. As a result, the company was able to raise over \$500 for the agency and a number of employees have volunteered time. The student also shared the experience with a spouse who was able to have their daughter's class adopt the agency as well, conducting a very successful toy drive whose proceeds went directly to the agency.

What's next?

Narrowly defining service learning as a pedagogical enhancement has been useful but limiting. Students who have participated in service learning activities have reported an increased commitment to community service, consistent with the goals of Regis' Jesuit mission of educating men and women who will be leaders in service to others. Eyler and Giles (1999) discuss a real need to think more clearly about the nature of learning that can be expected from service learning and to determine if and under what circumstances these expectations can and have been met in practice. Still there remains a need to look more closely at the long-term benefits of this area both in the transformation of learning and benefits to creating a more just society. This is certainly the focus of the second year of service learning efforts for adult learners.

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Online Adult Learning and Emotional Intelligence: Oxymorons?

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ABSTRACT

We begin this discussion of online adult learning and emotional intelligence with both the promises of online learning and the reported challenges. Next, we describe the profile of a typical online learner. We then define emotional intelligence and introduce it as a potentially key variable in online learning effectiveness. Finally, we propose additional research to explore the possibility of a relationship between online adult learning and emotional intelligence to answer the question: Are online adult learning and emotional intelligence oxymorons or interrelated system elements of an effective learning process?

WHAT IS THE FUTURE OF ONLINE LEARNING?

Online learning plays a key role in higher education worldwide. Appealing particularly to adult learners, online learning provides support for individuals who balance multiple priorities as they continue their undergraduate or graduate studies. In response, many North American universities have launched partial or total online learning courses as part of their curricula and responded to the educational customer who is part of the three billion dollar distance learning market (Parets 1999).

Online learning is something more than distance education, although distance education is the main market. Many new training courses are launched each day for the technologically changing world. The dream of lifelong learning has become a necessity and can be achieved through online learning. Finally, the high cost of traditional buildings used for education is another reason to look at the flexibility of new technology offerings such as online learning. Computer based and CD-ROM learning methods cannot compete with the flexibility, vast information, resource links, and the added dimension of human communication available through the Internet for online learning. Flexibility, resources, and the human touch offer the most significant reasons to expect online learning's bright future.

Can online learning be accessible to all? The answer in a practical sense is, generally, yes. Research indicates that almost all families and schools in North America have a personal computer and a telephone line, regardless of other wireless devices. More than 89% of public schools have Internet Access (Department of Education 1999). The use of Internet is becoming affordable and, in some cases, free to the user. Free Internet access is being provided by some nonprofit and governmental entities for places such as libraries and parks (Robb 2001). Most employees have connections to the Internet from their workplaces, and most of schools now provide labs and Internet access free to their students. In summary, the tools for online learning appear generally to be in place.

WHO IS THE ONLINE LEARNER?

Online learning alternatives are needed most by the nontraditional student who is often differentiated from the traditional student by being older, employed, and with a family. These adult learners pursue online learning for a variety of reasons: "time constraints, distance, finances, the opportunity to take courses or hear outside speakers who would otherwise be unavailable, and the ability to come in contact with other students from different social, cultural, economic, and experiential backgrounds" (Willis 1993 cited in Sherry 1995). Nontraditional student needs are often more easily addressed through the flexibility of online learning including alternatives to traditional brick and mortar institutions. According to the U. S. Department of Education, forty percent of all post-secondary students are now over the age of 24 years motivating approximately 1,600 of the estimated 2,800 accredited four-year colleges and universities to offer some type of online (distance) learning (Parets 1999).

Online learning is not for everybody (Rivera 2001) or at least in formal higher education. Reasons cited by those choosing not to take online courses are as follows: feeling uncomfortable with technology, difficulties with computer use and/or communication, slow or boring interaction, lack of stimuli, easy loss of motivation, need for human contact, feeling of isolation, and a desire to work in teams (Rivera 1999).

Typical past (and current) critiques of online learning include concerns about the consequences of omitting human contact in knowledge transmission. Students are often frustrated by the inability to effectively communicate their reactions, work in groups and/or receive guidance in solving problems (1999). In addition, many students feel bored and isolated (Eastmond 1995). From the instructor's perspective, there is frustration with perceived student motivation levels, lack of response to encouragement of students, inundation by repetitive e-mails, and an often-significant drop rate for online courses. However, according to a meta-analysis Russell (1997) of more than 240 studies on the difference in learning retention between classroom and alternative forms of learning delivery, "no significant difference exists."

Our hypothesis is that many of these online courses and subsequent studies have not adequately considered the role played by emotional intelligence from several perspectives: the learner, the course instructor/facilitator and/or the instructional technologist/course designer/developer and the online course materials. The role variables can be important as they inform the learning, the design, and the facilitation through potentially inconsistent levels of emotional intelligence. Research reveals that emotional intelligence or the emotional quotient (EI or EQ) can matter more than cognitive intelligence or the intelligence quotient (IQ) (Goleman 1995, 1998; Stein & Book 2000). According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence-based competencies are twice as important as cognitive ability and technical expertise combined. Therefore, an exploration of the emotional intelligence of both the learner (as a human) and the computer interface (designed and facilitated by humans) may provide significant insight for more effective adult learning online.

WHAT IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to be aware of and in control of one's own emotions as well as empathetic with others; to motivate one's self, and to be effective in intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Gardner 1993, 1999; Goleman 1995, 1998; Mayer & Salovey 1997; Stein & Book, 2000; Weisinger 1998). Additional understanding of emotional intelligence (EI) or the emotional quotient (EQ) is possible by contrasting it with cognitive intelligence or the intelligence quotient (IQ).

A further example of the difference between emotional and cognitive intelligence is noted in the

distinction drawn by artificial Intelligence researchers. These researchers included as important to intelligence such aspects as reasoning, problem solving, and learning while Bates (1994) argues that an artist can create believable characters through "appropriately timed and clearly expressed emotion," an aspect of non-cognitive intelligence. Emotions may then be less of a copy of reality than the creation of a sense of reality (1994) in the computer-mediated environment of online adult learning.

To support our hypothesis, we recommend administering an emotional intelligence assessment to online learners, designers of online courses, and facilitators/teachers of online courses. Several emotional intelligence assessments are available: the ECI® (Hay/McBer, Inc. 2001) based on work by Goleman and Boyatzis, the EQ-I® (Multi-Health Systems Inc. 1997) based on the work of Bar-On, and the EQ Map® (AIT and Essi Systems, Inc. 1997) based on work by Cooper. Generally, the assessments provide an emotional competence framework representing social areas (empathy, influence, communication, leadership, conflict management, collaboration, and cooperation) and personal areas (self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation).

HOW DO EMOTIONS AFFECT LEARNING?

If people are drawn to a subject because they enjoy it, they may be successful in learning the subject despite ineffective teachers and intimidating educational environments. According to McIntyre (1997) adults tend to choose topics that are of greatest interest and have the most meaning for them. So the more a student likes the topic, the more a student learns; the more the student learns, the more the learning is enjoyed. Computer use and online learning do not change these truths, they enhance them (Papert 1980). Many studies have been conducted about the effectiveness of computers and online learning versus traditional teaching and learning. The conclusion seems to be the same: learning is a personal process; if the student wants to learn something, he/she will learn it. (Rivera 1993).

Using this thought as a point of departure, is not a focus of the learning design how to enhance the enjoyment of and desire for learning a particular subject? Part of the answer seemed to be in eliciting emotions, positive emotions. Awakening these positive emotions in the students is key to learning. Online learning must be attractive, challenging, and, why not, fun? We do not as yet have a complete answer to the design of online learning, yet we believe that the online course designer's emotions are at least partially transmitted and embedded in the materials. Additionally, the learning strategy for course materials development is both charged with emotion and capable of stimulating emotions.

Advice abounds in instructional design books about how to improve computer mediated learning: be interactive, use color, use animation, provide positive feedback, focus on one thing at a time, as well as other ingredients for the online learning success recipe. (Coburn 1985). Nevertheless, it is important to determine not only 'what' is included in the course, but also 'how' it is delivered in terms of both the designer's and the facilitator's emotions embedded in the materials. Payne (1998) comments that although the beginnings of understanding exist regarding "the importance of individual learning styles, multiple intelligences, and different ways of knowing," the extent of application to improve adult education is questionable.

IS ONLINE CHATTING A POWERFUL EDUCATIONAL TOOL?

Online learning has a significant advantage over human-computer instructional methods in that it can provide human communication, synchronously or asynchronously; human communication can be "on-line" or "deferred". Both options can be quite successful using, for example, e-mail

and Blackboard®; (or other course support) discussions for deferred communication and instant messaging and chat for instantaneous communication.

When human communication is involved, emotional intelligence is also involved. The example of the chatting option as a learning resource is another example of where emotional intelligence enters the learning system. (Rivera 2000a, 2000b) Not only is emotional intelligence present in the design of the course materials, it is also present in the students as they interact with the course materials and one another. The academic success chat session use in on-line courses versus contact with a distant instructor using e-mail indicates a preference for chat session use. Student course evaluations recommend courses with chat sessions over a course without chat sessions. (Rivera 2000a, 2000b). The attention, the participation, and the feedback provided in chat sessions are essential to the overall positive learning experience as collaboration.

The evolution of online chatting indicates the need for communicating emotion. Special characters composed of regular keyboard punctuation marks, numbers, and letters of the alphabet became the tools by which chatters began to show online emotion explicitly. These special characters are called 'emoticons' and illustrate the wide range of emotions invoked by computer users in their communication. "emoticons" are as follows

COMMON EMOTICONS LIST (Barry 2001, Bronwen 2000)

:D or :D = Angel

:|| or :-|| = Angry

:@ or :-@ = Angry or screaming

>:-(< = Angry, annoyed

|-| = Asleep

;)= or ;)= = Big grin

:1 or :-1 = Bland face

:o or :-o = Bored

:c or :-c = Bummed out

:'(or :'-)= Crying/sad

:> or :-> = Devilish grin

:6 or :-6 = Eating something sour

}) or }- = Evil

:] or :-] = Friendly

:(< or :-(< = Frowning

:/ or :-/ = Frustrated

:D or :-D = Grinning

{ } = Hug

:*) or :-*) = Kiss

:x or :-x = Kissing

:-D = Laughing

:))) or :-))) = Laughing or double chin

:\$ or :-\$ = Mouth wired shut

:X or :-X = Mute

:l or :-l = Not talking

:Y or :-Y = Quiet aside

:[or :-[= Real downer

:< or :-< = Sad

:> or :-> = Sarcastic

B) or B-) = Shades

=:) or =:-) = Shocked

:Z or :-Z = Sleeping

:) or :-) = Smiling

:O or :-O = Surprised

:() or :-() = Talking

:P or :-P = Tongue out

:& or :-& = Tongue-tied

l) or l-) = Trekkie

:^= Unhappy, looking away

:-| = Unsure

;) or ;-) = Winking

:} or :-} = ☺ = Wry smile

IS THE COMPUTER INTERFACE EMOTIONALLY NEUTRAL?

The computer has the reputation of being a cold neutral machine with the capacity for simple processing: garbage in/garbage out and the answer obtained depends on the data entered. However, this may not be true except perhaps in the hardware because the software that is mediated by the programmer's emotional intelligence mediates neutrality. Course materials designed by an individual with low emotional intelligence may result in the 'garbage in/garbage out' reference when received by a student with high emotional intelligence. Online learning is designed by, facilitated by, and consumed by (students) individuals with varying levels of emotional intelligence. The course content and design, though based on a high IQ format of analysis, reasoning, and abstractions, can be less than effective if not filtered through individuals with high emotional intelligence.

Effective online learning evolves from a high level of empathy and understanding from all stakeholders in the experience. Because no two people are alike, the emotions that arise at the human-computer interface or working with the course materials are not necessarily the same (Martinez 2001). This same problem applies in human communication in which the emotions of two persons in the same situation may not be the same. Nevertheless, as we learn how to improve our emotional intelligence in the human communication, we can learn to improve emotional intelligence in the human-computer communication. An important challenge for the future will be continued adaptability and flexibility that is just beginning to emerge in human-and-computer interfaces. Emotionally intelligent design of the interfaces is critical for online adult learning success.

WHAT ARE QUESTIONS ABOUT ONLINE ADULT LEARNING AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

Many questions surround how emotional intelligence can be measured and expressed in online adult learning. The following questions provide examples of possible research questions: (1) What are the emotional intelligence profiles of the three identified stakeholder groups: the students/learners (with the materials), the designers (in the materials), and the instructors/facilitators (with the content)? (2) What research can be done in these three areas? (3) How can emotional intelligence for the three stakeholder groups be improved if deficits are identified? (4) Does high emotional intelligence translate to successful/effective online course completion? (5) What other variables (decision-making, conflict resolution, leadership, etc.) can be identified with regard to emotional intelligence profiles in online learning?

CONCLUSIONS

From the emotional intelligence assessment results, we will derive information for development of an online adult learner profile. Next, we plan to determine specific tasks and/or activities that can be designed or obtained to reinforce or enhance the learner's emotional intelligence. As part of this research, an emotional intelligence assessment would then be provided to instructional technologists/course designers and to instructors/facilitators. Although media can constrain online learning courses, new ideas and/or techniques can be deployed to address the emotional side of the stakeholders (learners, course designers, and facilitators) to develop learning that is more effective. More research is needed in this area.

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INSIDE THE CIRCLE
OF A
DISTANCE LEARNING COMMUNITY

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For they see in the essence,
not something that already lies open to view
and that becomes surveyable
by a prearrangement,
but something that lies *beneath* the surface.
Something that lies within
which we can see when we *look* into the thing,
and which an analysis digs out.
"The essence is hidden from us ":
This is the form our problem now assumes.

Lutwig Wittengenstein

Philosophical Investigations

Entry 92

COMMUNITY

Community scholars continue to research ways to characterize, understand, current communities (e.g., Anderson, 1991; Brint, 2001; Cohen, 1985; Etzioni, 1993); and whether communities do, can, exist when there are only words, "texts" on the screen (e.g., Connery, 1997; Rheingold, 1991). Community, as a concept and a way to describe public relationships, is changing. The change seems to be as dramatic at the beginning of the 21st Century, shifting from urban to cyberspace, as it was at the end of the 19th Century, from the rural to the urban.

Community is public. Whether we understand community as a campus or a city neighborhood or a small town or an online chat room, each of these shares one characteristic, its "publicness." We go out, or log on, to meet, to interact, to communicate with others who don't reside under the same roof as we do. Each of our individual experiences, understandings, of community are melded into declarations about community which then become our collective--public--understanding of it (Oldenberg, 1989; Sennett, 1994).

In addition, Linda Stoneall's (1983) research of community studies indicated the researchers often approach their analysis using a particular theoretical frame, which led her to conclude:

Community as a concept has a definite center without a well-defined periphery. The core of the concept of community is *people interacting in specific space and time* [.] [Emphasis added.] (p. 5)

Lastly, in Parker J. Palmer's (1998b) comments about educational communities, he said:

We talk a lot in higher education about the formation of inward capacities--the capacity to tolerate ambiguity, the capacity for critical thought. I want us to talk more about those ways of knowing that form an inward capacity for relatedness. (p. 24).

If community is public, if the community "core" is people interacting in space and time, and if Palmer is correct, understanding an educational community also rests on an understanding of what participants publicly say about their "relatedness" to others.

What is community then? What does community mean to its participants? What comprises community when, as Gertrude Stein said in another context, "There's no there there," especially when our interactions are primarily texts, in both the modern and postmodern sense--written words, and lots of them? Is it even possible to have an educational community, as we seem to understand it, primarily in the ether of the Internet?

THE FIELDING GRADUATE INSTITUTE

The Fielding Graduate Institute (Santa Barbara, CA) was an ideal site to research these questions. Fielding is an accredited, networked learning community for mid-career, adult students. It offers three doctoral programs, Clinical Psychology, Human and Organization Development (HOD), Educational Leadership and Change, and a master's in Organization Management. My study focused on two programs, Clinical Psychology and HOD.

At Fielding, people use a combination of face-to-face (F2F) and virtual communication, following Burgin's (1996) notion that the virtual is a continuum, not a dichotomy with F2F. The continuum, with F2F sessions at one end and the virtual at the other, describes Fielding's educational delivery system and the technological infrastructure. For the students, the continuum contains, for example, attending Research and National Sessions, the reading of texts (studying), the writing of texts (papers), or reading faculty's responses about their papers. At the continuum's opposite end are Fielding's web site and people's e-mail messages. The continuum serves to describe the students' immersion in texts, whether books, journals, online research data bases, e-mail, or Fielding's web site. Students are in a world of written words.

The continuum tips more toward the virtual at Fielding. To illustrate, if the *ideal* HOD student attended all possible F2F sessions over the course of a year, including both National Sessions (7 days each; 14 days); every regional cluster meeting (usually 9 per year); and both Research Sessions (4 days each; 8 days), the student would have a total of 31 days of F2F time. That leaves 334 days of "virtual time."

If the *ideal* Psychology student attended the two National Sessions, both Research Sessions, she would have 22 days of F2F time. Add Psychology's 11 cluster meetings per year, for a total of 33 days. In addition, Psychology's "residency requirements," logged by hours, are the equivalent of another 35 F2F days. The ideal Psychology student, then, still has 297 days of virtual time. In reality, students in both programs have much more virtual time than the ideals here.

THE RESEARCH

I wanted to learn whether Fielding students can experience community when (a) they largely experience Fielding in virtual time and (b) their primary communication are texts, online or paper. For this research I used, exclusively, public texts. As my primary data source, I transcribed 55 graduates' speeches from Clinical Psychology's and HOD's graduation ceremony videotapes. Each graduate speaks for about 3 minutes--or more. These speeches were a rich source as each graduate synthesizes in three minutes their 4- to 6-year (on average) experience.

Limiting my research to public speeches (and publicly-available texts) was an acknowledgment of the changing community "terrain" from the town square, local diner/coffee shop, and college campus. From physical places, where we learn about others from instants of behavior or talk, to the ether, with our growing reliance on texts alone, with words and language carrying the whole weight of communication, of meaning.

Each graduate's (and my own) "insider perspective" (Maher, 1999) provided an opportunity to study community--from within--which S.G. Jones (1998) indicated is needed in virtual community

research.

The graduates' speech rhetoric, responses to "celebratory praise," (Mulkay, 1984), provided context for their narratives about their student experience. By using poetic representation (L. Richardson, 1994) for each speech, I identified metaphoric descriptions (e.g., Casey, 1997). I also analyzed with whom, and about what, the graduates were in conversation, using portions of the Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) (Pearce, 1989).

THE CIRCLE OF COMMUNITY MODEL

My research indicated students become members of a "community of creators," who make Fielding what it is as a distinct educational culture, a social world--and a community. The graduates then re-present this "world of meanings" in their graduation speeches (Leeds-Hurwitz, 1993, p. 33).

Speakers make note of varying facets of the Fielding community from the elements of their lived experiences, which made it possible for me to develop a Community Model representing it. The graduates use language and metaphors specific to Fielding, of course (e.g., Agar, 1997). For this paper, I use only a very few of their rich, creative quotations to illustrate the Community Model.

The Circle of Community Model I developed has 4 quadrants, each with 3 facets, providing a holistic representation of community.

Making Sense: Meaning

The first quadrant of the Model includes how participants make sense (Weick, 1995) of their community by the:

Stories they tell each other (e.g., Czarniawska, 1997; McAdams, 1993; Polkinghorne, 1988).

Rituals they participate in and watch (e.g., Bell, 1997; Myerhoff, 1996).

Conversations they have about experiences, subject content, about each other, and about the organization (Pearce, 1994).

Of the many rituals, two concern graduation. Students over their tenure, imagining their future, write numerous versions of their speeches. Others stand at the dais, before or after graduation, to imagine their standing there. The dais is a very strong symbol of transition (Jones, 1996; also see Turner, 1974; VanGennep, 1960).

Making Do: Process

Students (and others) participate in community using varying and various types of processes:

Action, for the students, is completing the degree requirements. It is also their

experiencing what is called the "Fielding process," used to describe personal growth and change during their tenure (Mezirow & Associates, 2000).

Connection, by using infrastructures such as regional cluster meetings and the web site FELIX. They also establish connections with other students (Takamura, 1997).

Attention is not only on what, and with whom, the students attend (Krishnamurti, 1984) within the community, but also their attending to family, friends, work.

Attention is also about what, and with whom, Fielding attends internally (e.g., governance, academic policy) and externally (e.g., WASC and APA accreditation).

Ironically, the graduates rarely mention the technical infrastructure, however much the institution may be obsessed by it. Here are the rare examples: "I came, I saw, I logged on." And, "Uh, when I first started Fielding I was only reading at 1200 baud. Today I read at 28.8."

All the graduates, in their speech structure, clearly delineate between their Fielding experience and their "real life" experience. They thank Fielding constituents. Then they thank their significant others, frequently with tears and often using irony, humor.

Making Room: Imaging

We once envisioned community as something bounded by place and space, with its participants together, over time, in geographic proximity (e.g., Shore, 1993). Participants in Fielding's networked environment understand place, space and time much differently. For them:

Place is metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; also see Auge, 1995).

(Social) Space is conceived, perceived and lived largely in our images of it (Dear, 1997; Harvey; 1990; LeFebvre, 1974/1991).

Time is measured, not in proximity over time, but by the liminal and "breaks" in time's "arrows" (Volk, 1995; also see, Aveni, 1995; Gell, 1992; Zerubavel, 1997).

Graduates talk about "entering" or "leaving" Fielding, as if it were a place (the only physical site is the administrative office in Santa Barbara). Their time from orientation to graduation is a "journey", a "tunnel, even a "mountain" to climb.

They measure "breaks" in Fielding's arrow of time by, for example, the number of requirements met, the first committee meeting, an approved proposal. The graduates cognitive understanding and metaphoric interpretation of their lived experiences of these constructs are quite different than conceptions we might have of small town Iowa--or a university campus.

Making Music: Creating

The last quadrant describes what people appear to miss, pine for, or imagine when they believe there's a "loss" of community. These facets are the spontaneous communitas Turner described as ephemeral (Alexander, 1991). Graduates use rich metaphors, and humor, to describe:

Spirit is the guide (or guiding idea) or mentor, or elder, or family member on whom the graduate relied for support and guidance (Somé, 1993).

Essence describes the organization, the community, metaphorically.

Mystery is the "unsayable" (LeGuin, 1979).

Graduates use, often from their childhoods, their guides' aphorisms, for example, "Just do it!" They imagine their guides' encouraging the student to read, to learn. One used nature as metaphor, "Fielding is a garden." Another graduate described the essence as "a combination of Magic Mountain, It's a Small World After All; and Mr. Toad's Wild Ride." (A good friend, enduring my endless discussions about Fielding and about community said: "I know what Fielding is! It's a bunch of individuals looking for a collective where they can be individuals!") A graduate described it as "sitting around a camp fire."

DISCUSSION

Because each graduate had multiple experiences, even multiple understandings and meanings of Fielding community, I was able to develop the Circle of Community Model. The Model represents all the graduates' cognitive and experiential experiences. In their speeches, they emphasized one part (quadrant) of community over another; or they mentioned one, or some, of its components (facets) and not others.

Irrespective of the reasons why they chose to emphasize one part of Fielding over another (or their being a "bunch of individuals"), each told stories and used language from within the culture to describe their experiences to the ceremonies' audiences. As a result, I was able to study the participants' perceptions of the Fielding community yielding a new understanding of community.

Community, whether online, civic, or campus-based, is a complex system with multi-layered subsystems, or facets. Adding the participants' understanding of community, represented in this Model, enriches our understanding.

In Reamer's 1989 study of student retention at Fielding, she found students' *commitment* as the strongest indicator of their graduating. In Takamura's 1997 study of Fielding's orientation session, he found that critical to the adult students' success was *bonding* with other students. In my research, I found that the students' *attachment* to Fielding community, however they understood or experienced it, was a key success factor (Terry, 2001).

Parker Palmer was correct. We need to know more about, and encourage, students' relatedness in our educational communities. This is especially true of education communities that offer programs for, and support to, adult students. My research indicates that, indeed, for adult students to succeed, they need to feel, to understand, and be(-ing), a part of their educational community, however each may understand, or participate, in it. I think this is true whether the adults take night classes on campus, or whether they arrive at a satellite campus to watch videos or participate in a teleconference, or they take courses online.

Community is also about communication. When Fielding people learned about my plans for this research, they each gave me their own definitions, their own way of understanding what Fielding community was, or was not. Each person came with differing and very different assumptions.

I now know they were speaking about, if you will, different quadrants, For example, one person talked to me about requirements (Making Do); another about losing community (Making Music);

and yet another about internal rituals (*Making Sense*). If one community participant understands community as primarily making sense and another as primarily making do, any conversation they may have about improving, enhancing, or changing community might well be stymied by their conflicting assumptions.

Communities are not conflict free (Palmer, 1998a). Fielding's is no exception. Using the Model, participants can determine where: (a) their assumptions differ; (b) they are in agreement; (c) conversation can begin—and continue.

In spite of graduates' differing concepts and experiences of community, there was *something*, or a group of something's, which everyone understood about what Fielding community is. Matthews Hamabata (personal communication) told me, "You can't define community, you just know when you are in it." Maybe that's true, for our understanding of its spirit, essence and mystery. Maybe it's also true, when Fielding students learn how Fielding "works," its culture and processes, for example. The graduates' active participation, being "in it,"

was one of the key factors for their successfully completing their PhDs.

CONCLUSION

People construct community, and their meanings and experiences of it, by interacting in space and over time; telling stories, participating in rituals; conversing with others. They make sense. People participate in community processes by the actions they perform together; the connections they establish with each other; the infrastructures they rely on in order to do so. They and the organization decide on what, and with whom, they choose to attend. They make do. People imagine their relationships, whether on ground or online, as being part of their senses of place, space and time. They make room. People creatively infuse the whole with spirit, essence and mystery. They make music.

The Circle of Community Model is as a way to imagine the complex components of a community system. It is also a way for people with conflicting assumptions to better understand not only other people's assumptions about community, but their own.

Using the Model, people can assess what their community currently emphasizes (e.g., which quadrant or facets); what they think is working well; what they might want to change or leave intact; where they want to be. This might be especially true for retention studies for adult students, whether they are enrolled in an online, networked, distance, satellite campus or main campus program.

With the Model, I think it is also possible to read the burgeoning community literature, irrespective of type or theoretical discipline, to better understand the researchers' orientations. The reverse is also true. Community researchers can use the Model to assess how, and whether, theories outside their discipline might inform their community research.

For further research, using the Model in all types of communities, for example civic or campus-based, would be useful in determining: (a) its applicability in all kinds of situations; (b) its viability as a Model for explanation, diagnosis and planning. The Model might also be used as a guide for designing and executing additional community research.

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Teaching the Oppressor to be Silent: Conflicts in the "Democratic" Classroom

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Progressive and critical adult educators generally advocate for individual and social empowerment (Freire, 1970; Heaney, 1996), democratic teaching practices (Brookfield, 1999), and inclusive and safe environments (Tisdell, 1995). Many adult educators in this camp believe in starting where the adults are (Horton, 1998), giving all adult learners voice (Sheared, 1994), and avoiding coercive environments (Elshtain, 1976). Yet, each of these authors seem to assume, more or less, a homogenous group of oppressed people, a situation we do not usually encounter in higher education. We, as often as not, teach the oppressor not the oppressed.

A criticism of democratic teaching is that it allows for the voicing and acceptance of intolerant perspectives (Brookfield, 2001), creating an environment that Marcuse (1965) calls "repressive tolerance." However, Nieto (1995) argues if multiple perspectives are not engaged critically in the classroom, students could view all perspectives as "true," moral, and right, no matter how opposed they may be to the goal of respect and the value of human rights. Many adult educators, following traditional adult education principles, are often hesitant to criticize such voices and perspectives. In such "democratic" classrooms, intolerant voices often reign and oppositional voices are marginalized.

We would argue, therefore, that a tension exists between the practice of teaching for democratic social change and the outcome of such practice. Building on Newman's (1994, 2000) work on defining the enemy and ethical and confrontational action, Baptiste's (1998, 2000) concept of a pedagogy of disempowerment and coercive restraint, and Marcuse's (1965) concept of repressive tolerance, as well as feminist and critical multicultural authors (Banks, 1995; hooks, 1994.) we believe that in order to teach effectively for democratic social change a different set of practices may be required which violate cherished humanistic and liberal adult education practices.

However, we also recognize that the oppressed and the oppressor are often contained in the same person due to the different social groups that each person inhabits. To paraphrase Audre Lorde, the master and the servant reside in each of us; we may in fact act as an oppressor in one situation yet be oppressed in another. Recognition of this fact problematizes pedagogies of empowerment as well as pedagogies of disempowerment.

Before we begin a discussion of how our own teaching for social change demonstrates the ineffectiveness of traditional adult education practices, we will briefly review a few of the key ideas that Newman, Baptiste and Marcuse offer us. First, Newman (1994) reminds us that real enemies do exist; behind the corporations, the political assemblies, and the court system are people who often willingly and knowingly harm others. Our educational practice, Newman argues, does not prepare us for the enemies in and out of our classroom; instead, we focus on our own enlightenment and that of the victims. Newman argues that adult educators must find real ways to oppose the enemies—in and out of the classroom—using whatever means

necessary, including violence.

Baptiste (1998, 2000), building primarily on Newman, advances the concept of ethical disempowerment or coercive restraint of those who would do harm. Arguing that learning organization theory, transformational learning theory and even conscientization are part of the liberal, humanist hegemony which avoids coercion in the name of democracy, he concludes that none of these theories or pedagogies provide adequate pedagogical tools to combat the oppressors or enemy. Replacing such theories and practices would be theories and practices that "stop, disempower, [and] silence the perpetrators" (Baptiste, 1998, p. 4) of vice via what he calls "ethical coercive restraint."

Marcuse (1965) offers the most succinct reason for a pedagogy of coercive restraint and oppositional teaching, a pedagogy designed to delegitimize the status quo and silence the dominant majority. He argues that repressive tolerance demands that all voices are heard, "that the stupid opinion is treated with the same respect as the intelligent one, the misinformed may talk as long as the informed, and propaganda rides along with education, truth with falsehood" (94). Moreover, he writes that because people were indoctrinated into the dominant hegemonic thinking, they naturally reject radical or alternative perspectives that violate their formative ideological conditioning. In an adult education classroom practicing the democratic value of honoring each learner's voice, according to Marcuse, oppositional voices would be marginalized, met with hostility, and finally ignored. As Marcuse notes, "the conditions or tolerance are 'loaded': they are determined and defined by the institutional inequality. . . i.e., by the class structure of society. . . [and by] the privileged position held by the predominant interests and their 'connections'" (84-85).

Because these conditions lead to false consciousness, he argues that "suppression of regressive [policies, opinions, movements] is a prerequisite for the strengthening of progressive ones" (106). Marcuse argues that adults must be given information that challenges mainstream ideology, "information slanted in the opposite direction" (99). He notes that, 'to treat the great crusades against humanity. . . with the same impartiality as the desperate struggles for humanity means neutralizing their opposite historical function, reconciling the executioners with their victims, distorting the record" (113).

Marcuse states that negative critical thinking that builds a language of liberation must make a clear distinction between the adult learner and the adult educator. Freirean pedagogy in particular and liberal, humanist pedagogy in general attempts to downplay the distinction between learner and educator. Shared power and diminished teacher authority is generally viewed as optimal. Yet, several feminist writers have discussed the importance of claiming and exercising their authority as the teachers in their courses. In one example, Gardner (Gardner, Dean & McKaig, 1989) explains that when she tried to make her classroom "truly feminist" by taking a passive role, the feminist majority dominated the class and silenced those in the class who had less background in feminism. Only when Gardner reclaimed some of her authority were students able to critique the power dynamics that were present in the classroom. Feminist writer Lewis (1990) concludes: "The use of institutional power, I believe, should not always be viewed as counter-productive to our politics. I have no problem justifying the use of my institutional power to create the possibility for privilege to face itself ... Using power to subjugate is quite different than using power to liberate" (p. 480).

bell hooks (1989) also addresses this issue when she writes that the teacher's role is to facilitate the challenge of structured power relations. Although his can create "unsafe" classrooms where students feel uncomfortable being challenged, hooks (1994) feels that this mirrors the real world and that her students must be prepared to stand up for themselves.

Marcuse's concept of repressive tolerance coincides with the perspective of critical multicultural educator James Banks. Banks, (1995) like Marcuse, argues that tolerance of all views is actually repressive. In reviews of multicultural educational practices, Banks (1993, 1995) identifies several levels of multicultural education, most of which maintain the dominant culture's ideology. In the first level, Banks describes practices in which the teacher simply adds a unit to the regular Eurocentric curriculum without challenging the traditional curriculum. Banks charges that this form of multicultural education is worse than nothing because it serves to further marginalize people and to strengthen the ideology of the dominant culture.

Taken as a whole, these writers present a strong case for examining some of adult educators' cherished liberal, humanist, and democratic practices. In the section below, we will briefly discuss some of the problems we have faced teaching for social justice while using a "tolerant" pedagogy. First, Dr. Huber will present findings from a study of a distance learning class for K-12 teachers. Then Dr. Cale will note some of the problems he faced teaching a freshman composition class. Finally, we will offer some suggestions for future practice.

Findings from Practice: Dr. Huber

To Marcuse (1965), autonomous thought was a necessary condition for the development of any kind of social movement intended to resist domination. He felt that "the only way people can come to a truly critical perspective is by distancing themselves in some manner from the stupefying influence of common sense ways of thinking, feeling, and speaking" (9?). Isolation and separation are potentially revolutionary, the precursors to a commitment to social change. In his analysis of liberating subjectivity Marcuse stressed three things—memory, distance and privacy. All three of these components can be present in courses taught using distance learning delivery modes.

In a distance learning course that I taught designed to help White teachers understand and then implement culturally relevant pedagogy, the assignments students completed that were most thoughtful and critical of their own positions of power were the ones that were completed alone. For example, students were asked to write a self-study in order to understand how their own culture and background was manifested in their teaching and in their thinking about education. In this assignment, teachers wrote about their own backgrounds and discussed openly the racism and sexism that they experienced in their families, their lack of contact with people of color and their own passive racism.

The course required no formal communication required between students. Many of my colleagues felt that students would not come to closer understanding of critical multicultural pedagogy without discussing issues with each other. However, in at least one instance where students formed an informal study group, the autonomous learning and thinking that manifested itself during their self study disappeared after they completed the next two assignments together. Students who openly addressed the inherent racism in their classrooms and expressed a desire to end the racist practices that were a part of their hidden and overt curriculum did not complete a significant plan for change within their classrooms. In this particular case, whenever this study group discussed any significant change in their assessment practices, they reverted to the third person and discussed potential changes in broad and impersonal ways.

In summarizing Marcuse, Brookfield (2001) notes that using artistic, creative expression to liberate the senses has the revolutionary potential to transcend immediate reality, creating what Marcuse called the rebirth of the rebellious subjectivity. This may explain a puzzling facet of the assignment discussed above. The course syllabus gave students permission to submit their

self study in a non-textual manner. In the two semesters that I formally studied this course, no one choose to take advantage of this option. In another course dealing with general motivational principles which contained a similar option, I received wonderful, descriptive works of art that ranged from a quilt, to a sculpture, to a stained glass work. Perhaps students were not ready for their own rebellious subjectivity in this short, two-credit master's degree course. Students may not have been prepared to combat the language and images used by the powerful to dominate, indoctrinate, and deceive.

Findings from Practice: Dr. Cale

In my teaching for social justice and democratic social change at a community college in Michigan, I have attempted to help bring all my students to voice, to create a respectful and democratically based classroom by co-designing the curriculum and sharing decision-making power with the adult learners, to honor and respect individual's worldviews, even as I asked the adult learners in my classes to challenge their assumptions about the world. On the whole, I believe that my past practice has in many cases actually helped to silence some of my students, to reinforce the dominance of the status quo, and to diminish my ability to combat racism, sexism, and classism. In a semester long study of my own classroom pedagogy where I utilized democratic teaching practices as listed earlier in this paper, I have reported a number of unexpected and disturbing findings (Cale, 2001). These findings, I believe, have much to do with my attempt to create a "tolerant" classroom environment. Chief among my findings are the following.

On the whole, adult learners who believed or had come to believe that structural oppression exists did not publicly challenge the more vocal (and numerous) students who held that all prejudice is individual. This was especially disturbing to me because I repeatedly asked for their assistance during our plenary discussions. Through their silence they refused to act as allies for the students of color.

Perhaps more significantly, White adult learners (they outnumbered the people of color 12 to 4) argued that people of color could be racists, regardless of power differences, angrily citing in discussions numerous examples of how people of color had mistreated them personally. They literally overwhelmed my attempts to act as an ally and effectively silenced the adult learners of color as well as potential White allies. They also refused to treat the topic of racism seriously, telling me to "get over it," and eventually refused to White privilege at all. This led one student of color to stop-out, returning only after we finished our unit on racism. Her voice, which I had spent the semester nurturing, was marginalized and finally silenced in my "tolerant" classroom.

Several class periods were spent critically examining the concept of meritocracy and the relationship of capitalism to poverty, lack of health insurance or quality health care, unemployment, and the welfare system. Almost every student came into class with the belief that poverty existed due to individual deficits; they named such defects as laziness, ignorance, promiscuity, drug and alcohol dependence, and lack of self-control as the chief factors for poverty in the United States. Although readings and discussions challenged this hegemonic thinking, students in discussion and in written work loudly defended capitalism and denied the existence of structural oppression. As one student noted on the end of the semester evaluation: "Nothing you can say or show me as far as statistics go can convince me that poor people are poor because of something that our society does. I've seen them. It's their own damn fault!" The readings, authoritative lectures, and documentaries were no match for this powerful American ideology. Once I allowed the "common sense" of the dominant ideology to be voiced, nothing could disarm it.

In this class, the adult learners' gaze focused almost exclusively on the oppressed and almost never on the oppressor. When discussing classism, the students continually diverted the discussions away from the upper class and towards the poor. In discussions of racism, Whites consistently shifted the focus from White privilege and White people to either reverse discrimination issues or towards Black problems. Finally, in our discussions of sexism, patriarchy as an oppressive system was never adequately discussed as students constantly shifted their attention to trivial issues. The majority of the adult learners in this class spent most of their time blaming or scapegoating the victims. "Democratic" discussions generally offered opportunities for students to attack and silence oppositional thinkers, including myself.

What, then, can adult educators do to implement an ethical pedagogy of disempowerment? We have begun to identify some practices that break away from the hegemony that Marcuse, Baptiste, Newman identify conclude are present in the democratic classroom. For one, educators using asynchronous distance learning without formal study group requirements need to stop apologizing to those who are conducting classes in a more traditional manner. We also need to stop apologizing for our politics and to use our authority in ways to confront regressive ideas both in public and in private. We need to quit pretending that the existence of oppression in this country is debatable and instead ask learners what they can do about it.

We also need to continue to tap into the freeing power of art and encourage our students (or require) them to complete work that forces them to consider their world in a new light, using the media of art. Using art in our classrooms also empowers many of disempowered, such as women, because it connects with an affective, non-rational way of knowing.

Each of us has to find our own way to exorcise the hegemony of the "democratic" classroom. Like Baptiste (2000), we would ask those further along the journey to assist us. In this session, we plan to continue the discussion of how one challenges the democratic principles that adult educators hold dear while also avoiding Marcuse's repressive intolerance and implementing Baptiste's pedagogy of ethical disempowerment.

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Redefining Diversity through Technology:

Preparing Global Citizens and Building Inclusive Communities

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This year, National University is celebrating 30 years of dedication to making lifelong learning opportunities accessible, challenging, and relevant to a diverse population of adult learners. As stated in its mission, the University's central purpose is to "promote continuous learning by offering a variety of instructional approaches, by encouraging scholarship, by engaging in collaborative community service, and by empowering its constituents to become responsible citizens in an interdependent, pluralistic global community." Two pertinent questions that we now raise are: "How will technology change the way we learn?" and " How can we redefine diversity to advance the agenda of social equality and foster the spirit of responsible citizenship and inclusive community building in a global context?" While the first question will require time and a reflection on outcome data, the second one can be addressed now.

In the process of responding, however, we should consider two other questions that seek answers. 1) "How effective are we going to be as citizens, educators, motivators, and visionaries to function in this competitive, pluralistic world that is being reshaped by information technology and the creation of a knowledge-driven, global economy?" 2) "How culturally competent are we to be able to value differences in people and perspectives and contribute to improving the quality of life for everyone?" and who are our constituents and how equipped are they?

The answers to these queries also have implications for our sustainable future. As the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development in Switzerland reported "The end of the twentieth century was marked by conflicting trends and of integration and disintegration. The expansion of world markets has drawn more people than ever before into a closely integrated world economy, while increasing the gap between rich and poor, and strengthens a dangerous tendency toward polarization and exclusion." The UNRISD noted, however, that, despite the current debates on international security, national social policy, and human development to avoid fragmentation and retrenchment, this tension is being offset by opportunities to strengthen a broader sense of community. (Globalization and Citizenship, 1998)

In the United States, the Association of Schools for Curriculum and Development 1999 Yearbook theme: "Preparing Our Schools for the 21st Century" issued a different kind of call to arms.

Whether a teacher, a school, or a district chooses to emphasize critical thinking, academic core subject matter, or vocational training, that choice is building toward three common purposes of schools: helping students participate in a democratic society, engage in a productive work like, and engage in lifelong learning. (1999 ASCD Yearbook)

ASCD's urgent message, however, needs to go beyond its K-12 education audience and reach adult learners in continuing higher education and knowledge economy. The call has to be amplified and consciously extended to the disparate community of learning at large.

In 1971, National University made its commitment to charting a new course in higher education with a flexible delivery system for working adults offered at convenient locations in a one-course-a-month, evening-class format. Twenty years later, the University added an integrative dimension to the continuing higher education of adults through an organizational transformation that established an institutional set of core values for access, affordability, speed, relevance, quality, and community. That initiative was carried out through a continuous diversity enhancement plan and process, which was translated into preparing global citizens and inclusive community building.

Today, those 1990s' strategic directions have matured to the point that the University has taken stock of its accomplishments and is beginning to apply the lessons learned to a collaborative future that embraces technology and the application of knowledge as a full community partner.

At National University, understanding human and cultural diversity is an integral part of an academic quality that contributes to the completeness of one's education. The unfinished task, therefore, is to determine how best to develop a culture of learning for inclusive community building through the pervasive use of information technology.

In view of the new century's cultural dynamics, we need to redefine diversity in terms of preparing global citizens and inclusive community building. That process is about the re-orientation and re-education of adult learners through interactive diversity and sharing the spirit of community through commitment and collaboration. By focusing on the inter-relatedness of knowledge and the interdependence of people, we can encourage a checking of our assumptions and a re-thinking of worldviews through personal reflection, cross-cultural understanding, exposure to online learning and citizenship as public work and civic entrepreneurship. By crossing the old boundaries of the place and mind and building mutually supportive, pluralistic, learning environments, we can bring the promise of our interdependent future closer to us and improve the prospect of enhancing the quality of life for everyone.

When we talk about diversity, we first need to recognize that diversity is not a political artifact, but a fact of life. Human diversity is an all-inclusive term that includes gender, age, class, color, race, ethnicity, religion, national origin, linguistic and cultural differences, sexual orientation, and many characteristics of differently able persons. Cultural diversity refers to equal, co-existing pluralism -- a human condition that acknowledges and respects differences in people and perspectives. Such diversity is nurtured by human interaction, self-reflection, and understanding and enhanced by cross-cultural communications or interactive diversity process that enables us to view the world in its natural interdependent state. It is posited, therefore, that by defining diversity in these terms we are able to grapple with the apprehensions and misunderstandings that shroud diversity's subtleties better and engage in multiplying positive human relationships for community well being.

The Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania redefined diversity in terms of value creation through research (*SEI Center for Advanced Studies in Management*, 2001). Management consultant R. Roosevelt Thomas, an early proponent of the premise that diversity goes beyond race and gender, is advocating that we shed a new light on the term, arguing that diversity is not synonymous with differences and similarities and that complexity is its counterweight. "Where diversity increases, complexity increases; while complexity becomes pronounced, so does diversity." (*A New Understanding of Diversity*, 1996). It also is apparent that we now need to redefine diversity and share its wealth beyond the marketplace and workplace. We need to reach the widest possible audience and develop a critical mass of people who can bridge our cultural divides. Distance learning technology is today's promise for that to happen.

According to the National Institute of Standards and Technology, colleges and universities spent \$1.5 billion dollars in 1998 delivering learning online. Moreover, the online learning marketplace is expected to grow by 300% growth and become a \$46 billion dollar industry by 2005. (New Media Services, 2000) Today the major competitors are Blackboard Inc., a collaborative higher education and business-based enterprise in Washington, D.C. and e-College, headquartered in Denver, Colorado. Both service providers exploit the benefits of the Internet and offer user-friendly applications and competencies in education, technology and business. In trying to ascertain the impact of this new educational thrust means, Yolanda Moses of the American Association for Higher Education remarked: "How we interface with it (technology), how it's learned, the ways in which students will have different critical skills, the role of faculty – we're going to have to take a close look at the impact of technology on 'the university' writ large. (*Black Issues in Higher Education*, 2000)

Along this same line of thought, Thomas Fox McManus at the University of Texas at Austin and Stephen Erhman, program director at the teaching, Learning, and Technology Group (TLT) of the American Management Association offered some intriguing insights. In examining the role of distance education at the university level, McManus noted how it is problematic. He weighed the arguments of the opposition (that it undermines the unique non-academic experiences and personal interactions which take place in the "physical surrounding of the academy.") and supporters (the changing demographics of the student population requires an alternative to traditional classroom-based instruction through the use of technology to allow for the displacement of time and distance.) McManus concluded that the propagation of distance education is inevitable. He stated that distance education serves a need that will require the methods and policies to change, but he also registered his caution on the pace of the transformation in the academy. (McManus, 1997)

Stephen Erhman, acknowledged the persistence of the opposition, but he felt that the issue is not an either/or proposition. Erhman posed the question of whether or not technology can increase both learner access and enhance the quality of learning at the same time?" He examined the pros and cons of technology proposals submitted over eighteen years while he was associated with the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Instruction (FIPSE) and the Annenberg/CPB Projects and concluded that distance learning technology represents the third revolution in higher education. (*Educom Review*, 1999)

Erhman also argues that we can improve quality, access and affordability simultaneously by redefining our educational delivery choices through technology. We can improve quality by ensuring such measures as: 1) develop a well-structured web library, 2) exploit the slow-pace of e-mail, 3) enrich and diversify instructional support, 4) seek more culturally diverse learners and 5) focus on assessment, feedback, and the process of learning to learn. We can improve access by communicating the advantages of web learning, diversify instructional formats, press for affordability, and focus on online orientation, use, and interaction.

The first and second revolution in higher education can be traced from Socrates' dialogues, which included reading and writing, to the Middle Ages transition from the independent scholars teaching independent learners to organized scholars and students working together in colleges and universities. Through technology, we have added educational innovations that can change who learns and what they learn. "We can reorganize learning around digital technologies in ways not unlike the methods by which we took advantage of reading and writing and of campuses." (Erhman, 1999) Online education also helps us to redefine diversity dramatically by democratizing the learning environment and broadening our knowledge horizons. It encourages collaborative teaching and self-directed learning, while stimulating critical thinking and prompting a greater awareness of civic culture and global interdependence.

From a theoretical standpoint, we need to consider the rationale behind the use of appropriate technologies that increase both quality and access. As mentioned earlier, we can realize our strategic diversity direction by linking large numbers of learners, scholars, and resources together in a richer, more effective distributed environment. We introduce the multiplier effect for interactive diversity by reaching the widest possible audience through what Guilles Paquet, Director of the Centre for Governance at the University of Ottawa, calls social learning and collective intelligence." Social learning is the process of diverse human interaction through which "individuals and organizations learn from each other, and consequently adapt, invigorate, develop new arrangements, conventions, and rules." Cognitive intelligence refers to the "creative and discriminative capacities of a group or organization or community...the whole that is more than the sum of individual understandings." (Paquet, et. Al., 1998)

Let us now demonstrate how mixed-media approach to teaching a diversity course in a traditional classroom course, (i.e. Hum 500, *Understanding Cultural Pluralism in American Society*, supplemented by the use of an Internet e-Companion menu) can lend credence to distributed learning claims. We then can take a closer look at how an asynchronous online program (i.e. *Civic Culture and Global Awareness*) can help us foster the spirit of global citizenship and community as an overarching educational objective. Both courses include a field experience and the latter involves the web-based *NetWorld Game*. Although these college-level offerings were designed for the adult learner, they can benefit students of all ages.

The following web demonstration is designed to attract attention and increase interest in technology-assisted distributed learning as a means of advancing our mutual interests in diversity. It also a way of recognizing that bridging difference in people and perspectives begins with crossing boundaries of place and mind. NU's host server is e-College. Students enroll in the course on line, purchase their books on line, receive information online, exchange ideas in threaded discussions, and assume responsibility for a major part of their learning. The course is team-taught and the basic ingredients of the program include a "Perception Check," "Pre and Post" assessments and tests, three "Units" of work that is divided into a number of "Modules," a field experience, and a global issues Internet game. Also included are "Web-enrichment lectures, supplemental readings, web resource links, writing guidelines, and such online menu elements as an e-mail source, a Webliography, threaded discussions, a chat room, a message center, video-clip capability, a journal entry element, and a help desk.

Hum 500, Understanding Cultural Pluralism in American Society is a curriculum-wide diversity elective that is offered both online and in the traditional classroom setting. The course was designed as a way to reflect on our national history, examine the ideal of *e pluribus unum*, enlarge our understanding of our cultural past, and clarify the meaning of cultural pluralism in American society. It is divided into three instructional units and a number of related modules. Unit 1 provides an historical perspective from Ronald Takaki's A Different Mirror, A Multicultural History of America. Unit 2 reflects on America's cultural past and engages students in an ethnographic field experience. Unit 3 examines the dynamics of the "Culture Wars" and the future of cultural democracy through a capstone "Considered Opinion" paper.

Hum 501, Civic Culture and Global Awareness, is a five-quarter unit, curriculum-wide diversity elective and one of sixteen courses in the online Global Studies degree program. Students are encouraged to keep a course activity log for the Unit 2, community probe and profiling activity. For digital conversations between students and/or student and the instructors we rely on e-mail, which may be augmented by fax or telephone under certain circumstances. The textbook references (Bernard Dauenhauer's *citizens in a fragile world*, Brian O'Connell's, *Civil Society, Underpinnings of American Democracy*, and our *KEEPERRHHATT Guide to Community*

Profiling offer a playing field for stretching the mind and applying knowledge. The fieldwork is self-initiated and provides the student with the opportunity to discover, examine, and apply the knowledge gained from being a participant/observer and/or an investigative reporter.

Some of the content intrigue imbedded in the Units and Modules are in threaded discussions on complex citizenship, the cultural tendencies of relational and analytical thinking, and the implications of casuistry on our value judgments. The "pre" and "post" assessments and tests at the end of each unit allow the student to determine how much he or she has learned and how valuable it is.

The value-added dimension of online education is student awareness of how they measure up to both course expectations and their own. They learn to bond at a distance and realize that they see the mind at work without the prejudicial trappings of physical appearance. They learn to be more aware of what they know, don't know, and need to know. They also learn to recognize the importance of analyzing all sides of an issue before drawing conclusions and being more polished in their expression of thought. To date, the internal and external evaluations of student online performance and course worth has been extremely positive.

Until one is committed, there is always hesitancy. ...Whatever you can do, dream, and begin it. Boldness has a genius, power, and magic in it. Begin it now.

(anonymous)

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Jacque Caesar, Ph.D. and Thomas MacCalla, Ed.D., **ABSTRACT**

In view of the pervasiveness of cultural misunderstandings and the tension of pluralism in the new century economy, we need to redefine diversity in terms of preparing global citizens and inclusive community building. Technology offers us a way to address that concern through interactive diversity and collaborative learning. The presentation discusses the concept of mixed media education as an instructional strategy for providing access and quality, while accomplishing the task of widening the circle of influence to foster the spirit of citizenship and community in a global context. More specifically, the presentation demonstrates how an Internet-enhanced classroom program on *Understanding Cultural Pluralism in American Society* and an asynchronous online program on *Civic Culture and Global Awareness* can advance this diversity agenda.

Online Conferencing as a Tool for Graduate Learning

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This paper describes an ongoing study of the Online Option of the MA program at Vermont College. The general question for this study concerns the role of information technology in creating favorable educational environments. Specifically, we are asking how asynchronous conferencing can be used most effectively to promote learning. Our context is an individualized graduate degree program based on Deweyean principles. The Online Option was established to strengthen the Program's social component by extending group learning opportunities beyond the brief residencies to the entire enrollment. It retains and enhances a learner-centered, inquiry-based process and structure.

Our contention is that information technology can be used to increase the effectiveness of a learning environment, rather than merely for information transfer. The Online Option of the Graduate Program uses it to encourage cognitive development. The literature supports our view that for this development to happen, learners must be able to learn actively, have opportunities to interact with each other and with faculty; and to reflect on their learning. The online option, using web-based asynchronous conferences, provides special opportunities for interaction and group collaboration. As a first step toward developing a better understanding of how to use the asynchronous environment to promote critical and analytical skills, we subjected the record of a month's discussion in our pilot conference area to close analysis, and attempted to identify various stages of cognitive thinking in participants. Here we outline preliminary findings and the limitations of our project, as well as directions for further investigation and the implications of this research for improving our practice.

The recent literature provides documentation for an understanding of learning as social and interactive, and for the value of information technology in providing an environment which promotes cognitive growth. McLoughlin, et. al. (2000) give a brief summary of the argument for social context as a necessary factor in cognitive development:

For cognition to be analyzed, culture and context are the fundamental units of consideration, as human development is seen to be located and immersed in social practices (Vygotsky, 1978). This perspective resists the separation of the individual from society and the daily environment, and perceives meaningful activity as embedded in authentic and socially-created situations. . . . Cognitive change can occur through processes of social interaction in which ideas are articulated, shared, revised, modified and adopted because of their relevance to the cultural context

(Roschelle & Teasley, 1991; Newman, Griffin & Cole, 1989). Learners progress through developmental changes by attempting successive approximations of the learning task, assisted by peers, more able others or by a tutor. Support offered in the form of dialogue, collaborative tasks, structured questioning and demonstration of skills has been found to be effective in enabling cognitive change (Hmelo & Day, 1999; Palincsar, 1986).

Brookfield also stresses the social nature of the human "self:"

. . . adult learning needs to be understood much more as a socially embedded and socially constructed phenomenon (Jarvis, 1987). . . . It is easy to forget that the 'self' in a self-directed learning effort is a socially formed self and that the goals of adults' self-directed learning can therefore be analyzed as culturally framed goals. Learning is a collective process involving the cultural formation and reproduction of symbols and meaning perspectives. It should not be understood or researched as if it were disconnected, idiosyncratic and wholly autonomous.

Chickering and Ehrmann (1996) find significant potential for support of developmental learning in information technology;

Technological resources can ask for different methods of learning through powerful visuals and well-organized print; through direct, vicarious, and virtual experiences; and through tasks requiring analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, with applications to real-life situations. They can encourage self-reflection and self-evaluation. They can drive collaboration and group problem solving. Technologies can help students learn in ways they find most effective and broaden their repertoires for learning. They can supply structure for students who need it and leave assignments more open-ended for students who don't. Fast, bright students can move quickly through materials they master easily and go on to more difficult tasks; slower students can take more time and get more feedback and direct help from teachers and fellow students. Aided by technologies, students with similar motives and talents can work in cohort study groups without constraints of time and place.

Since 1970, the Graduate Program has offered mentored, low-residence MA studies which are learner designed, inquiry based, and carried out by individual learners independently. Concentrations are possible in humanities, social sciences, education and inter-disciplinary areas. Students each work with a core faculty generalist and a field faculty specialist, to develop and implement study plans focused on their own questions and interests. These study plans outline focal issue(s), resources, methodologies and documentation, as they are understood at the start of the process; the direction and approach is subject to change as learning takes place.

The GP online option was established in 1998 to make the Program more accessible to strengthen its social learning component by extending group interactions to the entire enrollment period and to give our students access to the full benefits of information technology. Online option students attend brief opening and culminating residencies, and communicate with their faculty advisors and peers principally by email and in asynchronous conference.

The social dimension of learning has not been fully addressed in the other delivery models of the Program, even though they rely on more frequent face-to-face meetings. There have been no ongoing conversations among learners, nor has there been any sustained effort to use group settings to help achieve the learning objectives stipulated in the Graduate Program's

"Criteria for Graduation." Strengthening this aspect of the learner's experience was a principal purpose of the Online Option's original design. Specifically, the group conversations would address the criterion which calls for demonstrating the "ability to evaluate sources critically, to see the complexities and nuances of problems, and to assess opposing views with objectivity." The asynchronous environment would be used to supplement individual interactions with faculty advisors, by creating a series of small group conversations about "meta-issues," those overarching concerns which were common to all learners, regardless of their particular topical interests. It was hoped that they would thus construct knowledge collaboratively, and that in so doing, they would improve skills appropriate to graduate learners and acquire or enhance higher order thinking abilities.

The online option retains the core values of the Graduate Program :

- The integration of theory and experience;
- The relationship of individual and community;
- The centrality of the human desire to know;
- The importance of critical perspective.

This model retains the learner-centered, inquiry- based GP process and structure. Each student has a core faculty advisor and a field faculty advisor, and designs her own study plan. Residencies are required at the start and completion of student programs.

Asynchronous conferences for groups of 6-8 continue throughout enrollment. These conferences include individual student presentations of work in progress, with peer critique and analysis, and group conversation about topics of common interest, emphasizing basic elements of graduate study--critical thinking, the identification and evaluation of resources, research methodology.

Three faculty members have formed the John Dewey Common Room online, to accommodate selected group conferences; to provide a context for ongoing innovation in conference design, implementation and assessment; to support faculty learning about effective online practice. Our first research addresses how asynchronous conferences can be best used to develop cognitive thinking skills. We started with several hypotheses:

- facilitated asynchronous conferences can be effective for developing learners' critical thinking
- The archived record of these conferences will contain recognizable indicators of desired changes
- Analysis of these records will provide clues to better faculty use of these discussions

The first phase of the investigation was to analyze one month's group discussion in the John Dewey Common Room. The discussion topic was "Epistemological Debates, Feminist Voices," by Stephanie Riger, which surveys critiques of women's exclusion from psychological research. We adopted William Perry's schema for analyzing cognitive growth and generated from it a scale for rating participant responses . Perry provides us with a "scheme of cognitive and ethical development--the evolving ways of seeing the world, knowledge and education, values, and oneself." He suggests that there are four basic positions: dualism, multiplicity, relativism, and commitment.

- Dualism: People understand meaning to be divided essentially into two realms: good/bad, right/wrong, we/they, etc. It is believed that there

is a right answer to all problems, and that authorities exist who know the answers. By memorizing the answers provided by these authorities, it is possible, with hard work, to be "correct."

- Multiplicity: People realize that, in some fields or areas, there are, as yet, no right answers, and therefore it is legitimate to have different opinions and values. "Everyone has a right to his/her own opinion; none can be called wrong."
- Relativism: The diversity of opinions and values come from evidence and logical systems or patterns which can be analyzed, compared, and critiqued. While some opinions may be deemed worthless, there will be issues in which "reasonable people will reasonably disagree. Knowledge is qualitative, dependent on contexts."

- Commitment: In recognizing and being aware of "relativism," people will, nevertheless, make a commitment, choice, or decision. While relying on external sources for information, the decision-making process is seen as existing within the individual, and not on some external authority.

We recognized the limitations of our method: the arbitrariness of the choice of Perry's developmental scheme, with its well-known deficiencies of derivation, etc.; the problems in assigning quantitative values to individual responses; the narrowness of the basis for any generalization. Nevertheless, we believe that it provides a first framework for looking at the online conferences, and for thinking about their use in achieving Program goals.

Numerical values were assigned to the responses according to the following scale:

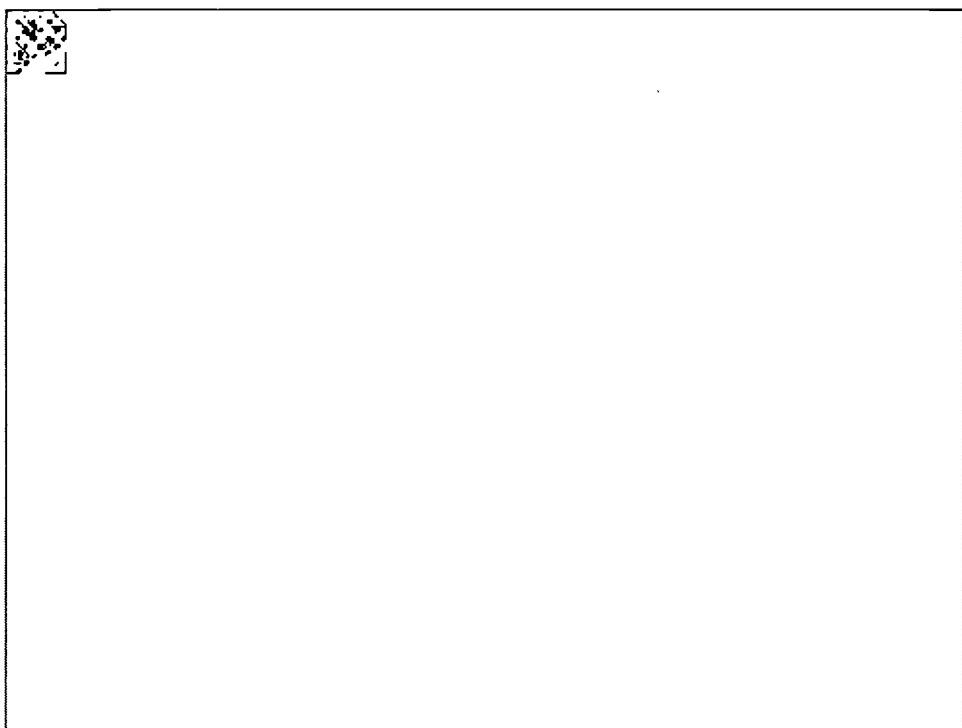
- Dualism 1
- Transition 1+
- Multiplicity 2
- Transition 2+
- Relativism 3
- Transition 3+
- Commitment 4

A general profile of discussion participation:

- Number of participants: 15
 - Learner responses: 1 to 14
 - Average responses: 3.8
 - Facilitator responses: 14
 - Total responses: 64
- Critical thinking range in responses: 0 to 2+

The observed patterns of interaction and response were charted, in an effort to

represent part of the discussion graphically . Participants are identified by their initials and specifically-colored boxes. Lines joining the boxes indicate to which messages responses were directed.



Analysis of the chart makes evident some interesting patterns of response.

Early responses tended to refer directly to the article, staking out a particular point of view. Responses to other responses increased as the conference progressed, sometimes diverging from the main topic. At these points, it was important for the facilitator to re-focus the direction of the conference.

Our general conclusion was that although the record of the discussion does provide a basis for

study and analysis, one month by itself does not give evidence of correlation between the articulateness of responses and higher order thinking, or of perceptible change in critical and analytical skills. We could, however, infer that the quality of the discussion would be enhanced if the facilitator stated its goals clearly at the start, and if expectations for learner participation were also clarified. To the extent possible, facilitator responses should be focused on the helping learners develop the desired skills,

rather than on the direct introduction of content.

Our research will continue with analyses of more of the archived discussions. Despite the limitations outlined above, we have already found support for our convictions that

- Online technology complements rather than replaces existing pedagogical approaches.
- Teaching online is likely to cause the teacher to rethink his or her role.
- Mediated asynchronous conferences may allow the teacher to mentor the student more effectively.
- Mediated asynchronous conferences have potential to be used as a tool for assessment.

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THE ADULT LEARNER IN ACADEMIC MIDLIFE: PERSISTENCE, SUPPORT, AND INTEGRATION IN A DISTANCE LEARNING DOCTORAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Persistence in distance doctoral education may be related to faculty mentoring strategies as well as learner developed strategies for increasing integration with the institution and the virtual learning community. This case study investigated how doctoral students in a private, graduate degree only, distance education institution maintained a high level of integration and developed academic support during the second year of graduate study. The construct developed by the authors to characterize this period is academic mid-life which describes those students who are between the completion of first year tasks and the acceptance of a proposal. It is during this stage that students are typically more isolated from faculty, the institution, and the virtual learning community. This study uses learner narratives to identify how faculty actions assisted distance education doctoral students develop strategies for increasing integration with a distance faculty, a distance institution, and with a network of distance learners.

Three mentor actions emerged which were related to persistence among distance doctoral education student: Reassuring supportive relationship, responsiveness to learner needs and feelings, and assisting students to negotiate through institutional policies and procedures and resources leading toward graduation.

Retention efforts in an on-line environment usually focus on the beginning students as they orient to distance education and adjust to independent learning. At Walden University incoming students are typically supported by an orientation or start-up team and specially selected mentors to guide them through the first year. Often progress is closely monitored in terms of benchmarks to be completed during the beginning quarters. Learners are motivated by the elation of beginning the program of study. Completing students have the support of dissertation committees and are motivated by being able to see an end to their program of study. It is the students between these two groups who are of particular concern in this study. These are the students in academic mid-life. While most of the students who drop from the Walden doctoral program drop during the first 12 months, approximately 20% of those who drop will do so during the second year of enrollment.

During academic midlife, the excitement of an academic program becomes tempered with the requirements of family and job, and learners may become bogged down with the press of academic requirements and the search for a dissertation topic. It is at this stage that academic and social integration becomes a critical element in persistence and degree completion; that is,

the student feels part of the community (Towles, Ellis, & Spencer, 1993). Faculty-student contact has been identified as a variable impacting persistence in campus based programs as well as distance education. Most of the research in this area has focused on undergraduate education and situations in which students chose one course using a distance format. However, the results of these studies can lead to the identification of variables for investigation of student factors in persistence in any distance education program. Research results with undergraduates have been inconsistent with regard to faculty initiated contact though trends indicated that faculty initiated contact had a greater impact on completion rates for students taking lower level courses (Towles, Ellis, & Spencer, 1993). Also in a study by Pugliese (1994) none of the variables predicted to be associated with withdrawal from telecourses were found to predictive: these included locus of control, loneliness, social confirmation, social experience, and dyadic communication with faculty and tutors. In looking at systems to enhance the learning experience for the distance learner, research by Dillon, Gunawardena, and Parker (1992) supported the need for access to student services on-line and the importance of effective interpersonal communications between faculty and students. The results of this study suggested that instructors should be encouraged to assume a more active role in communications. One of the debates about the Internet has been whether the internet leads to more and better social relationships or that people become more isolated and cut-off from genuine social relationships (Kraut, et al. (1998). While the Kraut et al. study did not focus on educational outcomes, their study did support the hypothesis that time on the internet adversely affects social involvement and psychological well-being. An early study of German distance education by Kahl and Cropley (1986) identified a set of characteristics of distance learners: they often elect to work with a set plan, setting aside special times for learning and set up a learning area for themselves; they prefer learning materials which are clear, explicit and structured

Consistently, access to faculty, other support systems, and integration within the learning community has been identified as critical to success. If academic persistence seems to be related to the degree of support provided by the institution to maintain a relationship with students learning at a distance and yet certain variables describing faculty actions are inconclusive, how than do graduate students learning at distance maintain a state of integration and develop a strategy to build support for their learning? How do faculty mentors support the integration process?

The objective of the present study was to identify from narratives of faculty and students how the student maintains a high level of integration in the distance academic community. What level of academic support is desired and what level did the students receive during this period? The question for the mid-life learner whose primary relationship with other learners and with faculty mentors is through the Internet is how to enhance the quality of those relationships so that they enhance the educational experience rather than adding to the isolation and decreased social involvement. The relationship between the learner and faculty mentor has been seen by Walden as a critical part of the learning process. An essential element of graduate education in the Walden model is the role of the faculty mentor. The traditional definition of mentoring is that it is a process of interpersonal exchange, in this case between a faculty member and a learner, in which the mentor provides support, direction, and feedback as related to aspects of the mentee's professional, social and personal development (Schwiebert, 2000). The specific duties of the mentor in a formal mentoring relationship are defined by the institution but the basic strategies related to education regarding resources and the institution, protection from making costly mistakes, and active listening characterize most mentoring relationships (Schwiebert, 2000). Through mentoring the learner can become acclimated and integrated into the academic community and mentoring can enhance the development of professional identity (Schwiebert, 2000). The establishment of the relationship involves both the mentor and the

mentee negotiating what each brings to the relationship and the mentee acknowledging and informing the mentor of his or her needs. The maintenance of the relationship becomes the responsibility of both.

The Virtual Campus

One of the debates about the internet has been whether the internet leads to more and better social relationships or that people become more isolated and cut-off from genuine social relationships (Kraut, et al. (1998). While the Kraut et al. study did not focus on educational outcomes, their study did support the hypothesis that time on the internet adversely affects social involvement and psychological well-being. An early study of German distance education by Kahl and Cropley (1986) identified a set of characteristics of distance learners: they often elect to work with a set plan, setting aside special times for learning and set up a learning area for themselves; they prefer learning materials which are clear, explicit and structured.

The question for the mid-life learner whose primary relationship with other learners and with faculty mentors is through the Internet is how to enhance the quality of those relationships so that they enhance the educational experience rather than adding to the isolation and decreased social involvement.

This study explores and describes the strategies developed by faculty and students to provide academic support for the mid-life student. A successful transition in graduate school and the successful adjustments to be made not only within the Walden community but the wider community both during and after the program.

Defining that role and relationship for the midlife student is one of the focuses of this study. What are the characteristics of the successful mentoring relationship during this stage of academic life? Walden University works to develop opportunities for students and faculty to maintain contact with the academic community. This task is more difficult to achieve in the virtual environment. Innovative uses of student listservs and bulletin boards, residency options, and academic support services available on-line and by phone are provided. Which ones are desired and needed by the Mid-Life student becomes one of the questions addressed in this study.

The purpose of this study is to explore and describes the academic relationships desired by distance learners so as to reintegrate the teaching and learning act. This study will further describe the mentoring relationships desired by students to foster the reintegration of the teaching -learning act. In what ways do mentors academic support for the mid-life student.

Theoretical Perspectives: A Developmental Perspective and the Reintegration of the teaching learning act.

Peck (as cited in Papalia, Olds and Feldman, 1998) identified four psychological adaptations necessary in middle adulthood. They are valuing wisdom rather than valuing physical prowess, socializing as the primary value in relationships, emotional flexibility and mental flexibility. Perhaps the one that is critical to this discussion is socializing as a primary value in relationships. Developing and maintaining a relationship with the mentor and with others in the graduate school cohort cannot be discounted. The mentoring relationship may hold the key to successful transition in graduate school and the successful adjustments to be made not only within the Walden community but the wider community both during and after the program.

The developmental literature can provide a perspective for looking at the midlife learner.

Education is seen as being related to the development of identity in adult women. Petersen (2000) found that for Caucasian women education was a way to discover competence and to modify or transform established roles. Their goals and motivators appeared to revolve around personal emotional gains. For the African-American women in this study, barriers to education and opposition were the typical experiences in higher education rather than experiences which enhanced self-esteem. Thus, self-esteem and identity development can provide motivators for mid life women if barriers to success can be reduced or eliminated. Helson (1993) found in her study of Mills College graduates that in contrast to previous research that women do not become less dependent over time when they have followed the "feminine social clock." Rather it is the influence of multiple roles and tasks that women select: that is it is critical to study subjects, both men and women in life contexts. Thus the context in which graduate study occurs is the critical piece.

The development of goals is also related to success as a learner. Gollwitzer (1999) suggests that goal attainment is more likely when people frame their good intentions as learning goals rather than performance goals. Success depends on being successful at self-regulation; that is being able to initiate goal directed behavior and bringing it to a successful conclusion. Part of this is control of the environment; "the person prevents the derailing of an ongoing goal pursuit by removing the competing temptations from the situation in which the goal pursuit is to occur" (Gollwitzer, 1999, p. 494). Successful goal pursuit requires tenacity and flexibility (Gollwitzer, 1999). This is particularly important for the individual working independently and often without the visual and real support of others doing the same thing.

Keegan (1998) proposes that the manner in which a distance education institution reintegrates the teaching act with the learning act influences learner retention and the quality of academic performance. Keegan's theory suggests that the student's retention is enhanced when academic support services are available which integrate the student into the academic community or provide the student with the feeling that he or she is a member of the academic community even though the student is at a distance. In distance education, learners often do not have access to immediate learner to instructor or instructor to learner feedback, reinforcement may be delayed, and peer and academic support can be lacking. Reintegrating the teaching with the learning act reconstructs the interpersonal relationships that exist in the face-to-face classroom. Keegan hypothesizes that the separation of the teaching and learning act is responsible for a weak integration on the student into the scholarly life of the institution.

This lack of integration may contribute to students dropping out of the learning experience. Further, the separation of the teaching and learning act is responsible for a weakness in interpersonal communication, leading to a lack of quality in the learning achieved. This study explores how reintegration of the teaching and learning acts can occur in a distance-learning environment.

Method

Subjects and the Learning Environment. The faculty and learners participating in this study are from Walden University. Walden offers doctoral programs in two formats. The first is the traditional, course format that characterizes the programs in the Division of Psychology and all MS programs. Courses are offered in an on-line format and in a format that combines on-line instruction and face-to-face learning. The other doctoral programs in Management, Education,

and Health and Human Services use an independent study format in which learners work with an individual faculty member to develop a learning agreement based on knowledge area modules. The product of the learning agreement is a three-part demonstration of learning over a well-defined area of knowledge.

The student sample consisted of 36 doctoral students; 19 were enrolled in the KAM program and 17 in the course-based program. Of these 25 (69%) were female and 11 were male. Time in the program varied with a mean time of 23.75 months. All respondents completed a consent form which they mailed to the investigators. The researchers used a variety of data collection techniques: on-line student interviews in the form of narratives, on-line faculty discussion over a three week period, and an on-line focus group with student volunteers. The data was subjected to qualitative analysis techniques to identify patterns, themes, and trends in the data regarding the interaction of faculty and students during this critical period. It should be noted that the respondents were all persisters and their voices speak to actions taken by mentors which were related to keeping the learners in the program.

Table 1. Length of Time in Program

Months in Program	N
<12	5
12-23	15
24-35	6
>35	10

The Interview Questions. The interviews were conducted on-line. Questions were sent to the list of participants and participants could respond to the group or to the investigators privately if they preferred. The questions were sent out one every two days. The questions were:

1. What did your mentor or other faculty members (without using names) do, say, or provide which kept you feeling part of the Walden Community?
1. How did your mentor or other faculty members keep you progressing in your program?

As needed the investigators sent follow-up questions requesting clarification or additional information.

Thematic Analysis and Code Development

Thematic analysis is a process for encoding qualitative information using themes generated inductively from the raw information. The specific procedure used was developed by Boyatzis (1998).

Category 1. Responsiveness to learners

Definition: faculty respond to queries or concerns in a timely manner (24-48 hrs)

Indicators: Answered my question promptly; always available when I called.

Category 2: Relationship with learners

A. Supporting

Definition: Faculty offer reassurance indicating that once can succeed in the program

Indicators: Tells students that "We are in this together;" keeps in regular contact to offer support and encouragement; expresses sincere interest in my success.

B. Academic Progress

Definition: Consistent contact with the learners to insure that progress in completing

courses/KAMS is occurring; provides information on learning resources

Indicators: Keeps in touch regularly to check on progress; responds in class postings (individually); provides advice on sequencing courses

C. Respectful

Definition: Faculty reduces distance in status and treats students as adults.

Indicators: Faculty have been courteous, interested, cooperative with students; makes me feel like a valued and competent part of the community; Meets me face to face to read a paper.

Category 3: Resources

Definition: Links learners to a community of others learners or faculty

Indicators: Initiated a list serv for contact with other students; Connected "newbies" with experienced students.

Discussion

Analysis of the student and faculty narratives indicate actions leading to Connectedness and Contact seem to be key to persistence among distance education learners. A powerful action seems to be frequent meaningful and personal communication

" My mentor has endeavored to establish a personal relationship with me. He has said things any student would love to hear. Whereas he is very meticulous and focused on improving my writing he is simultaneously projecting a " we are in this together attitude". I would like more communication between the two of us. I have been lucky to be a part of another faculty mentor's communication network. The network has been perhaps more valuable to me than the communications with my mentor. The content and regularity of these communications are the key." (Allen, kam student)

" When I initially enrolled, one of the first things I received was a greeting from him

in which he introduced himself and described his professional background and welcomed me to the program. I still have that note. He also made it very clear from the beginning that he wanted his mentees to succeed and that he would take the time to see that it happened. This was and is communicated in both word and deed. For example, he initiates periodic contacts with his students through his quasi-quarterly HOWGOZIT? queries. (his way of seeing how one is doing.) and he connected each one of his "newbies" with a seasoned veteran student for the express purpose of affording us an opportunity to get information "only another student would know". From his exchanges with me I could tell that he was responsive and had high standards. Both of these matter a great deal to me and were a definite factor in my decision to continue after the first quarter (Sandra, on-line course student)

Sometimes it is not the frequency but the promptness and the expression of interest that is important to persistence.

"It might only be a " how are you doing note" but it kept me moving in the right direction . There was always a lot of support the ? I know you can do it message" too When we ask questions he promptly replies (within a day or two) His prompt replies helps to make me feel like a valued and respected part of the community." (Susan, kam student)

Communication and contact appears to be a metaphor for caring about the individual; the perception that one is cared about makes the difference.

Being responsive and supporting and flexible is a second aspect of reintegrating the teaching learning act. reducing distance related element . A student relates an instance in which a disagreement with another faculty reader might have lead to her dis-enrollment if not for a supportive mentor.

" I ran aground of another instructor and received a grade I felt was unjust. Here again, my mentor was key (in my retention). I received a great deal of support and psycholigal visibility from him and that made the difference in how I internalized the event and my feelings toward Walden University as an institution. I consider him to be my primary link to the school." (Denise on-line course student)

Another set of comments show the demotivating effects of lack of contact

"My main faculty mentor checked in on me sometime last year by email. My reader for the kam sent me a reading list and by email told me to read the handbook. I'm lost, I'm swamped and I'm discouraged...but I'm gonna make it." (Joan, kam student)

"I am taking the practicum with my new advisor to try him out. I hear from him only if I send three or four messages. I try very hard to understand that he is in a different time zone, but it is hard to keep motivated when I don't get a response within a week's time." (Judith, on-line course student)

Flexibility in working with adult students is regarded highly by midlife learners. Flexibility on the part of faculty and the institution regcognizes the tension between adult life and academic study.

The greatest contribution that was made by my mentor, other faculty, and staff that kept me part of the community was flexibility with the demands I face with family and career. The efforts that attracted me to the University made it appear that the University had the means to accommodate the complexity of demands that its students face in life with the objective of offering course instruction designed to facilitate doctoral-level research.....The faculty who presented themselves as flexible and trusting offer a measure of support that complements my self-direction and motivation to excel.(Charles, on line course student)

A third aspect of reintegrating the teaching learning act is by providing the distance learner with a sense of community and integrating the distance learner with the institution and other students. This is in addition to emphasizing content and doctoral level work. The mentor must be seen as knowledgeable if the program mechanics and how to work through the procedures and policies of obtaining a degree. Providing reminders of requirement timelines , mailings about procedures, and listservs keep the students connected to the program.

A student speaks of the importance of a mentor generated listserv which helped the learner connect to the institutional culture and to others.

"A faculty member whom I worked with initiated a listserv which enabled me to have almost daily contact with other Ph.D. students and importantly with a faculty member. I learned a lot about how to survive in the program....Later I got involved with an Administrative Management and Decision Making Sciences listserv (PhD program specific listserv) that also served to keep me motivated and learn which faculty cared.... (However) the removal of the listserv really eliminated the "sense of community" for me. For the last 2.5 years I have zero contact with any of my student peers. Its a lonely feeling when you feel like the only kid at school--even though you know there's others out there." (Dennis, kam student)

Another student comments on how his mentor suggested activities to keep the learner academically involved.

"I found my mentor person knowledgeable, helpful, and personable too. He encouraged group and private discussions that related to course contact. He asked and encourage us to join list-server groups, tour libraries and other exercises designed to enhance (us) such as writing labs. In addition I found him supportive when serious issues's arose and available too." (Bert on-line course student)

For some students just knowing that a knowledgeable mentor is available is enough to keep one persisting in the program.

"My faculty advisor did very little to keep me motivated. I did not necessarily solicit that kind of external motivation. My mentor was there for me if I needed him, but I really didn't see any point in talking to him. I see the role of the faculty as resources and guides if you need that, but I detect hand-holding and won't do it. I believe that I can do anything for myself, but I can ask questions or seek guidance if I don't understand anything." (Kathy, on-line course student)

Conclusion

It appears that the mentor and learner through the quality of the interaction are trying to simulate face-to-face interaction in the virtual environment. A pattern of connectedness joins

the categories together. In a distance environment the mentor becomes the connector to resources, to institutional culture, to other learners, and to the content of learning. Through the mentor midlife students can reduce isolation and build a set of experiences to encourage persistence. The mentor helps distance learners to develop a cognitive-experiential self which enhances the ability of the student to persist in a distance environment by providing learners with support for relatedness, self-esteem and coherence. (Epstein, 1993). Mentors assist in the integration efforts by reducing the social, psychological, and physical distance of the learners from the institution and from the community. The faculty mentor as a single point of contact for the distance education graduate student creates a sense of shared space where the learner and faculty can connect on both a personal and academic level. For students in academic midlife, persistence in the degree program is fostered through:

personal and timely communication expressing a commitment to help the learner to succeed.

a sense of belonging to a community of learners exhibited by electronic networks for

"out of class" discussions and conversations

a learning culture which recognizes flexibility to accommodate adult life.

providing resources to keep learners academically involved and progressing through the various stages of a doctoral degree.

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The Effect of Learning Styles on Success in Online Education.

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The way that each learner conceptualizes information and constructs ideas is unique. With the advent of emerging technologies and on-line computer courses these characteristics are of particular interest. Emerging technologies redefine many of our traditional ideas about teaching, learning, and technology. Research is needed to better understand how to optimize the capabilities of learners using these technologies.

Most of the literature concentrates on determining the effectiveness of varying media across instructional settings. The effectiveness of the instructional strategies adopted in consideration of a particular media as well as the specific instructional situation, (including cost, efficiency and learner preference) is possibly more significant. Few applied studies, however, focus on the synergy of pairing various instructional strategies and media for a given learning situation.

Instructional strategies are made up of a series of messages. Technological development, however, has changed the conceptualization of the design of messages (Berry, 1995). According to Berry (1995, p.93): "the almost phenomenal developments in technology will make necessary new ways of looking at messages technically and will mandate that we reconsider how the symbol systems intrinsic to these media interact with and structure the message." Berry describes message design as "that fundamental component of instructional design that brings together the diverse areas of psychological theory, research findings, and technological development in a more comprehensive manner than most any other aspect of the design process" (1995, p.87).

Computer-based instruction, interactive multimedia, hypermedia and on-line learning environments differ from past instructional media in some fundamental ways, causing a reorientation of message design to address the differences in form and symbol systems. In order to understand how to optimize the capabilities of learners with technologies this study examined the effects of learning styles upon learner success in an on-line environment. Since the synergy of pairing various instructional strategies and media for a given learning situation was considered necessary to the optimization of learning in this environment, it was theorized that the learner's unique style correlated to course achievement.

Learning styles are the unique patterns of responses that learners develop with regard to various learning environments. R. M. Felder (1996) expressed that "students take in and process information in different ways: by seeing and hearing, reflecting and acting, reasoning logically and intuitively, analyzing and visualizing." He concluded that the choice of a learning styles model or inventory is almost irrelevant: teaching designed to address all dimensions on any of the models is likely effective, and all of the models lead to more or less the same instructional approach. Examining the current learning styles inventories (Hay Group, Kolb, Myers-Briggs, Hermann Brain Dominance Instrument, and Felder-Silverman) learners are classified as being sensory or intuitive, visual or verbal, inductive or deductive and sequential or global and along dimensions that categorize a learner's reaction to experiences and processing of information.

One model, Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory is based on the experiential learning model (Kolb, 1984). The learning cycle involves four processes that are ideal for learning. These dimensions are concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. In an ideal situation these dimensions would constitute a cycle through which the learner progresses. However, in reality, learners begin at different points of the cycle and may or may not progress in a systematic manner.

The Learning Cycle

Concrete Experience:	Reflective Observation:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning from specific experiences • Relating to people • Being sensitive to feelings and people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carefully observing before making judgments • Viewing issues from different perspectives • Looking for the meaning of things
Active Experimentation:	Abstract Conceptualization:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Showing ability to get things done • Taking risks • Influencing people and events through action 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Logically analyzing ideas • Planning systematically • Acting on an intellectual understanding of a situation

Kolb, D. A. (1999). Learning style inventory 3. Boston, MA: Hay/McBer Training Resources Group.

The Learning Styles Inventory

Diverging: Concrete Experience and Reflective Observation	Assimilating: Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualization
Converging: Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation	Accommodating: Active Experimentation and Concrete Experience

Kolb, D. A. (1999). Learning style inventory 3. Boston, MA: Hay/McBer Training Resources Group.

Hypothesis

It was theorized that the combination of a predisposition to active experimentation and abstract conceptualization would lend itself to success in the on-line environment. The active experimenter is one who responds to a learning situation by more often acting upon experiences than reflecting and likes to experiment with new ideas and practical applications. Learners must proactively generate and alter knowledge structures in order to interpret what is

presented and construct knowledge systems. Also, learners should be encouraged, using abstract conceptualization, to generate their own system of organization. Learner-generated organizers involve searching a body of information to locate key concepts, thus they are inherently more proactive in nature (Kenny, 1993). The on-line environment supports direct and active learner manipulation and organization of information in order to promote deeper or different understanding.

On-line courses also support direct and active learner manipulation through the use of hypermedia strategies. Hypermedia is the storage and retrieval of information in a nonsequential manner as opposed to a traditional linear pattern. Hypermedia links various forms of media, including text, graphics, video, animation and sound. In cases where various forms of media are linked, learning becomes an active process and students can use the technology to learn and communicate their understanding of a subject (Townsend & Townsend, 1992).

Procedures

The course used for this study was IM 101 - Introduction to Application Software. This course is designed for an adult accelerated program and is eight weeks in length. It is an introductory computer course, which begins with instruction in basics computing. Students learn about the hardware and software that work together to make a computer run. Students are then introduced to the Windows operating system. Instruction is given in Windows navigation and file management during the first two weeks of the course. The next two weeks are spent learning the basics of word processing utilizing Microsoft Word 2000. Students are instructed in the creation, editing, formatting, printing and saving of word processing documents. The last three weeks are spent on basic spreadsheet creation and manipulation utilizing Microsoft Excel. Students are instructed in the creation of formulas and the use of functions in an Excel spreadsheet. The last week a final exam is administered that is part theory based (multiple choice, true/false) and part practical application.

This is the second time that this study has been conducted. The first administration was in the Fall of 2000. The procedures and population for both administrations were similar. This paper specifically discusses the second administration of the study. The subjects of the second study were selected based on their registration for two IM 101 courses offered in the Summer of 2001. The first course was offered in an in-class eight-week, traditional (face to face) setting. The second course was offered in an eight-week online setting. Students in the online course came to campus for an orientation session the week that class began and the rest of the course was conducted entirely at a distance in the online environment. The only interaction these students had with their instructor was through online discussions, e-mail and assignment/test feedback sent to them by the instructor.

During the first meeting with both groups of students, the students completed a technology comfort survey, a Learning Style Inventory based on the theories of David Kolb, and a pre-test. This information was put aside for later analysis in order to prevent bias. Both classes, although taught by different instructors, were conducted in the same manner. The same assignments were given to the students and the same criterion was used to evaluate students' work. The instructors collaborated frequently to ensure consistency in evaluation.

A post-test with the same content as the pre-test was administered to students at the end of the semester. The gain scores of the traditional students were compared to those of the online

students. Gain scores were then compared and correlated with the learning style data and the technology survey results. Additionally, the grades of the online students were compared to those of the traditional students.

Population

Eight students populated the online version of this course. Seven out of these eight students in this course were female. All of the students were adults between the ages of 22 and 60. Of these eight students, only one (12.5%) stated that she was "not comfortable" with technology. At the other end of the spectrum, three (37.5%) stated that they were "very comfortable" with technology. Four of the eight students (50%) stated that they were "comfortable" with technology.

Nine students populated the online version of this course. All nine students were female. All of the students were adults between the ages of 22 and 60. Of these nine students, only one (11%) stated that she was "not comfortable" with technology. At the other end of the spectrum, two (22%) stated that they were "very comfortable" with technology. Five of the nine students (56%) stated that they were "comfortable" with technology.

Results

Success in online education was assessed by examining the extent to which the program objectives were met. As an objectives-based study, the extent to which students achieve stated program objectives is a valid measure (Patton, 1990). The purpose of an objectives-based study is to provide a quantitative measurement of student progress. In this study, a two-group, pretest-posttest design was used. The two-group, pretest-posttest in an objectives-based study allows reasonable inferences about content mastery as measured by criterion-referenced tests.

In an objectives-based study, student achievement is measured by the difference between the pretest and posttest scores. It is assumed that there would be no effect without the instruction and that a gain in score from the pretest to the posttest is evidence of instructional value.

The IM 101 students were given a pretest and posttest. The test was criterion-referenced and revealed a mastery of course concepts. A concern was that the pretest provides practice on the test material which might inflate the posttest scores. To compensate for this, the pretest (which held the same content as the posttest) was not identical to the posttest. The pretest also served to indicate that the material was not known prior to the beginning of the course.

The level of expertise and comfort with the technology was also considered a potential factor since the distance separating the student and the instructor and the novelty of the technology can lead to a high degree of anxiety that may adversely influence a student's performance in an on-line course. The painful anxieties that learners experience in any instructional setting tend to be exacerbated when that learning is mediated by technology (Garrison & Baynton, 1989).

The posttest measured the extent that students did learn from the material. Gain scores revealed no significant difference in achievement between the in-class and online group. Further, there was no significant difference in achievement between those who were

comfortable with the technology and those that were not. Finally, contrary to our hypothesis, there was no correlation between students and achievement in either delivery format based on their classification on the learning style inventory.

Conclusion

The results from this study are identical to those from the study conducted almost a year earlier. It seems that students with many different learning styles can adapt to well design instruction regardless of the online or in-class format. However, it should be noted that the populations for both studies were too small to be statistically significant.

Implications for Practice

Verduin and Clark (1991) believe a distance educator may be able to see a pattern of learning styles and plan or adjust the instructional design and strategies accordingly in order to increase the chances of student success. Trying to address many different learning styles simultaneously in one on-line lesson is not practical or cost effective. However, diverging from the classic talking head online format and incorporating elements that are effective for each learning style may increase the learner's chances for success.

The addition of effective visuals in online environments may appeal to the learner who tends more toward reflective observation (prefers generating a wide range of ideas and likes to gather information from many sources). Instructional strategies such as journaling and online chats that involve brainstorming may aid the reflective observer. Incorporating fieldwork and observation in the lesson plan may be appropriate for the learner who is more prone to learn through concrete experience. Increasing the amount of lecture via videotesting coupled with assignments to write reflective papers favors the abstract conceptualizor. In addition, the active experimenter should be encouraged to develop by completing simulations, case studies, and exercises that require carefully observing a situation before making judgments, viewing issues from different perspectives, and interpreting the meaning of events. Incorporation of conferencing into course designs supports such interaction and facilitates a sense of community among participants.

In consideration of the variety of learning styles among students in a given class, varying instructional strategies and maintaining close contact between instructor and learner may be more critical for success than the choice of an online versus an in-class instructional delivery format.

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Adult Women Graduate Students: Impostors in the Academy

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Introduction

Historically women have been considered the weaker of the sexes. This idea of women as lesser than has resulted in the gender being categorized and socialized as dependent, nurturing, and emotional, as opposed to men being viewed as independent, strong and rational. Such ingrained stereotypes have been internalized by society in general, and have led to women seeing themselves as needing and deserving little power and success. The Modern Women's Movement of the 1970s afforded unprecedented access and opportunities for women in the workplace and in higher education. Despite achievements in these arenas, many women still feel that their successes are underserved. Such perceptions of unworthiness can translate into a syndrome commonly referred to in the psychological literature as the Impostor Phenomenon (IP).

The Impostor Phenomenon (IP) is a distinct construct that comes from the psychological literature. Individuals who experience the IP believe themselves to be less competent than others perceive them to be (Clance, 1985). It is by definition associated with high achieving individuals (Clance, 1985; Clance & Imes, 1978). The IP was first identified by Clance and Imes in 1974 (Clance, 1985) in a population of high achieving women. Further research has shown the IP to be a gendered phenomenon (Beason, 1996; Clance, Dingman, Reviere & Strober, 1995; Clance & O'Toole, 1988; Dingman, 1987; Hayes & Davis, 1993; King & Cooley, 1995; Steinberg, 1986). As a population, students experience the IP more so than any other. As the impostor phenomenon is a gendered phenomenon, this is especially true for women students. It seems logical that these multiple identities, of woman and student, both of which are associated with the Impostor Phenomenon, would impact its manifestation synergistically. Therefore, this paper will explore the current literature on the Impostor Phenomenon and its implications for adult women graduate students.

Adult Women Graduate Students

For the purposes of this paper, adult students will be defined as those enrolled in higher education who are over the age of 25, or have adult responsibilities including family responsibilities, and full-time employment (Cross, 1980; Edwards, 1993; Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989). This population of students has increased greatly over the last few decades (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 1999). In keeping with the increasing number of re-entry students on campuses across the nation, many women are returning to higher education.

The statistics on women students enrolled in higher education ranges greatly. Recent statistics indicate that women make up over 50 percent of students in higher education (NCES, 1999). According to Kopka and Korb (1996), the number of women enrolled in higher education more than doubled from 1970 to 1993. The National Center for Educational Statistics (1999) reports that from 1987 through 1997 the enrollment of women increased by 17 percent. Hirt and Muffo

(1998) report that 55 percent of graduate students were women in 1994. Hirt and Muffo (1998) also predict that by 2008 the number of women enrolling in doctoral programs will increase by a third. However, Wilkerson (1989, p. 27) reminds us "women students are a numerical majority in higher education, yet their needs and interests are often a low priority."

Females now make up the majority of students on college and university campuses nationwide, with adult women students predicted to be a quarter of the total student body by the fall of 2000 (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 1999). While there are many issues that impact women returning to higher education (Chamberlain, 1988; Lewis, 1988), research suggests these students outperform traditional age college students (Lewis, 1988; Kasworm, 1990; Kuh, 1993). However, women returning to higher education often find the academy to be an uncomfortable place (Gabriel & Smithson, 1990; Sadker & Sadker, 1994). Literature in this area indicates that classroom, institutional and social issues all impact women's experience in higher education. The term "chilly classroom climate" (Sandler & Hall, 1982) suggests what many women experience in college classrooms. This "chilly classroom climate" includes everything from sexual harassment to less classroom attention. The hostile environment created by this chilly climate is important since there is a link between feeling in control, self-esteem, and positive thoughts of the self as a learner (Kopp & Ruzicka, 1993; Safman, 1988).

Institutional barriers are practices that "exclude or discourage" (Cross, 1982, p.98) full participation. These include admissions procedures, low numbers of women faculty/administrators, support services that are difficult to access and other formal parts of the college process that are unfavorable to women (Smith, 1991). Social issues are also of concern for women returning to higher education. In general, these include socialized gendered roles and expectations that encourage women not to question or challenge the traditional patriarchal system (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). The gender roles that women are socialized into teach women that they are to be nurturers. This leads women to careers, such as teaching, that are traditionally underpaid and not well regarded. When women do step out of these gender appropriate roles they are questioned, seen as not feminine, as not knowing their place, etc. This is most clearly seen in the lack of encouragement women receive to excel in education. In fact, education reinforces these gendered divisions, with women often being tracked into traditionally female fields (Roland Martin, 2000; Smithson, 1990) such as teaching, nursing, and liberal arts by counselors.

Women are also the majority to the graduate student population (Hirt & Muffo, 1998). Adult women graduate students experience similar obstacles as returning undergraduate women (Barkhymer & Dorsett, 1991). Classroom, institutional and social issues combine to make many adult women graduate students feel uncomfortable in the academic arena. These feelings coupled with lower expectations lead some graduate women to question whether they really belong in academia and if their success is truly deserved.

Returning students report reentering higher education for a variety of reasons (Cross, 1981). Reentry women report a variety of reasons for returning to higher education, but issues of self-esteem seem to be particularly important. This population also places more emphasis on and is motivated by an internal drive for self-fulfillment (Redding, 1992, Weiger, 1999). Ware (1988) and Younes and Asay (1998) report that women return to graduate work for increased self-satisfaction. Wall (1992) also articulates that graduate reentry women place themselves at the center when describing significant learning.

Literature on women returning to higher education suggests that there are many issues that impact these students (Chamberlain, 1988; Lewis, 1988; Smith, 1991). Frequently mentioned

are time constraints, family issues, and multiple roles. While most of the research on returning women deals with undergraduates, evidence suggests that reentry graduate women experience the same types of obstacles (Barkhymer & Dorsett, 1991; Younes & Asay, 1998). Taylor (1995) indicates that reentry women need both self-direction and support that promotes development. While these are seemingly two unrelated needs, this buoys the interconnectedness of the issues facing adult women students. O'Barr (1989, p. 95) tells us ". . . adult women students possess characteristics that are both strengths and liabilities when they embark on a reentry process. Generally, they do very well as students if their liabilities can be addressed and their strengths allowed to flourish." Some of the strengths that adult women students possess experience and desire to learn. Liabilities include time constraints and low self-esteem.

The Impostor Phenomenon

While the IP, secret intense feelings of fraudulence, has been shown to be a distinct psychological construct (Chrisman, Pieper, Clance, Holland & Glickauf-Hughes, 1995; Cozzarelli & Major, 1990; Dingman, 1987; Imes, 1979; Topping 1983; Topping & Kimmel, 1985), it is linked with several psychological traits including: low self-esteem, anxiety, depression, family background, introversion and higher standards for self-evaluation (Bussotti, 1991; Chae, 1994; Chae, Piedmont, Estadt & Wicks, 1995; Chrisman, et al., 1995; Clance, et al., 1995; Clance & Imes, 1978; Coskuntuna, 1997; Gerstmann, 1999; Hirschfield, 1982; Imes, 1979; King & Cooley, 1995; Langford & Clance, 1993; Steinberg, 1986, Robinson & Goodpaster, 1991; Thompson, Davis & Davidson, 1998; Topping, 1983; Topping & Kimmel, 1985). Societal messages regarding gender roles have been shown to influence the occurrence of the IP in women (Clance, 1985; Clance et al., 1995; Steinberg, 1986). This is an important concept that helps to explain why the Impostor Phenomenon continues to be a gendered construct.

Since Clance and Imes (1978) originally identified the Impostor Phenomenon in a group high achieving women, their original study has been debated regarding whether there is actually a higher and/or more significant incidence of the impostor phenomenon in women. The majority of studies support a higher/more significant incidence in women (Beason, 1996; Clance, Dingman, Reviere & Strober, 1995; Clance & O'Toole, 1988; Dingman, 1987; Hayes & Davis, 1993; King & Cooley, 1995; Steinberg, 1986). However, others have found no gender difference in the occurrence of the Impostor Phenomenon (Chae, 1994; Cromwell, Brown, Sanches-Huceles & Adair, 1990; Edwards, Zeichner, Lawler & Kowalski, 1987; Langford, 1990; Thompson, Davis & Davidson, 1998; Ward, 1990).

Impostors are characterized as being high achievers. However, they attribute their achievements to external factors (Clance, 1985; Clance & Imes, 1978), while internalizing their failures (Thompson, et al., 1998). Often, impostors believe themselves to be less competent and intelligent than others view them to be (Clance & Imes, 1978). In actuality, sufferers of the Impostor Phenomenon have an unrealistic sense of their own capabilities (Clance & O'Toole, 1988). While they continually strive to excel, they often limit themselves to positions beneath their capabilities (Thompson, 1999). Impostors fear that others will discover that they are living a lie (Clance, 1985; Clance & Imes, 1978; Harvey & Katz, 1985).

The Impostor Phenomenon and Adult Women Graduate Students

Several studies indicate that women suffer from the Impostor Phenomenon at rates higher than men and that it is a particular issue for women (Beason, 1996; Clance, et al., 1995; Clance & O'Toole, 1988; Dingman, 1987; Hayes & Davis, 1993; King & Cooley, 1995; Steinberg, 1986). As this paper will focus on the Impostor Phenomenon in adult women students, it seems

particularly relevant to take a closer look at the issues impacting this phenomenon in women. We know that in general the Impostor Phenomenon is impacted by family background, and is associated with depression, anxiety and self-esteem issues (Bussotti, 1990; Chrisman, et al., 1995; Clance & Imes, 1978; Grays, 1991; Harvey, 1981; Harvey & Katz, 1985; Imes, 1979; Robinson & Goodpaster, 1991; Thompson, 1999; Thompson, Davis & Davidson, 1998; Topping, 1983; Topping & Kimmel, 1985). Specifically for women, Type A behaviors, social mobility, family achievement orientation, higher GPAs and gender roles/stereotypes are also linked with the IP (Clance, et al., 1995; Clance & Imes, 1978; Dingman, 1987; Hayes & Davis, 1993; King & Cooley, 1995; Steinberg, 1986). For women, many of the characteristics associated with the IP are characteristics that are considered by society to be masculine (i.e. achievement, Type A behavior, etc.) or at the very least not decidedly feminine. This coincides with Clance's work (1985) which originally identified the Impostor Phenomenon in a population of high achieving women. Clance (1985) points out "messages given to us when we are very young, stay with us and have a profound effect on the self-image we develop" (p. 32). These messages include societal expectations -- expectations that are lower for women. While it seems that men are more likely to only experience this syndrome in their career lives (Clance, 1985, p. 84), women often experience it in their many roles and feel the need to live up to the Superwoman myth (p. 77).

This idea that women experience the IP in their various responsibilities is particularly relevant when looking at the Impostor Phenomenon in adult women students as many of these students have multiple roles including wife, mother, daughter, student, employee, etc. (Lewis, 1988). This is a double-edged sword for women. On one hand they are always trying to do more in order to prove that they are worthy. Yet, by attempting to be Superwomen and by being successful, women are challenging the status quo of women as lesser than. Being an impostor is encouraged in women in many ways, by society's messages regarding appropriate (nurturing) roles for women such as wife, mother, nurse, and teacher, by school tracking girls/women into these appropriate roles and by expectations that women not reach high levels of achievement or at least be willing to give up her achievement in order to take on the appropriate nurturing role.

Several studies look at students and the Impostor Phenomenon (Henning, Ey & Shaw, 1998; Holmes, Kertay, Adamson, Holland & Clance, 1995; King & Cooley, 1995; Niles, 1994; Robinson & Goodpaster, 1991; Thompson, et al., 1998). With the exception of two of the studies, undergraduates were the population of interest (Henning, Ey, & Shaw, 1998; Niles, 1994). Niles' (1994) study looked at graduate students in clinical psychology. The findings of this study suggest that the IP is associated with graduate student status (Niles, 1994). Henning, Ey and Shaw (1998) looked at medical, dental, nursing, and pharmacy students. Their conclusions also suggest that (professional) student status is connected with manifestations of the Impostor Phenomenon. Brookfield (1990, 1999) also discusses impostorism and suggests that it is common across all levels of students. He also indicates (1999) that for adult students, impostorism is not related to positionality, a claim that is not supported by research. It should be pointed out that Brookfield cites (1990, 1999) no research for his claims. No studies were found that specifically addressed the impostor experience in graduate reentry students.

Conclusion

There seems to be a clear link between gender, student status and the Impostor Phenomenon. However, little research has been done specifically in this area. The impact higher education has on impostors is not discussed in the current literature. We know that the academy is not a friendly place for women, especially for reentry women (Lewis, 1988). With this in mind, it seems reasonable to question the role the academy plays in the Impostor Phenomenon.

Specifically, classroom and institutional issues need to be addressed. The chilly classroom/campus climate, women's learning styles, lack of women faculty/ administrators, could all reinforce the Impostor Phenomenon in adult women graduate students. As adult women have become the majority of the graduate student population it is important to investigate and address these issues in order to ensure that women do not exist as impostors on our campuses. The face of adult learning on campus must become friendlier to all.

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The changing face of Adult Learning: A South African Perspective

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Traditional mainstream education in South Africa

Until very recently, adult learners in South Africa wanting to do a management degree had to enroll for the traditional classroom model where they had to attend classes with the mainstream students. These classes were offered in the evenings, which meant that, after a day's work at the office, adult learners had to attend classes, often till late at night. One can understand that the drop-out rate of these adult learners is very high. The demands placed on working learners who have family responsibilities is tremendously.

The principle of recognition of prior learning is a very new concept in South Africa and has not been applied by many tertiary institutions. More often than not, adult learners have to attend classes and study material relating to skills already acquired by them. The other alternative to attending evening classes is that of correspondence, of which the University of South Africa (UNISA) is the main provider in South Africa. In this learning mode, students do not attend formal classes, and contact sessions are kept to a minimum. However, the traditional subject content still remains.

At the University of the Free State in South Africa, the Bachelor of Management Leadership is the first ever degree programme developed for working adult learners in South Africa. It targets adult learners within corporations who wish to upgrade their management skills and further their education without having to sit in traditional, mainstream education.

This program has been developed in partnership with de Paul's' school for New Learning and approved by both the South African Matriculations Exemption Board and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). It was started in February 1999 with a group of approximately 40 students. Presently there are 160 students in six different semester groups. Of these, 24 hope to graduate in March 2002.

The programme focuses on business, commerce and management leadership studies but is also linked to communication, language, training and development, social sciences, labour relations, computer literacy, recreation and physical planning.

Policy

The policy of the program is to assess and recognize the prior learning experiences of working adult learners regarding management leadership, and then to develop, at tertiary education

level, the intellectual and practical capabilities of these learners in preparation for a career. This career can be in the fields of:

- Business and industry
- Community development
- Public sector
- Trade unions
- Life-long learning and the appreciation of the value of education to society

The degree is divided into four exit levels:

- Letter of recognition
- Certificate in Management Leadership
- Diploma in Management Leadership
- Degree in Management Leadership

The following diagram captures the structure of the programme.

Portfolio Development Course

Assesment and recognition of Prior Learning Experiences relating to the learning outcomes of the BML programme.

(Request for credit)

Certificate Level (except in cases where prior learning has been credited)	Diploma Level (except in cases where prior learning has been credited)	Degree Level (except in cases where prior learning has been credited)
Environment: Modules	Environment: Modules	Environment: Modules
Management: Modules	Management: Modules	Management: Modules
Leadership: Modules	Leadership: Modules	Leadership: Modules

Continuous assessment by presenter and learner in all modules

Review committee meetings (to monitor/guide/facilitate the integration of skills, knowledge and attitudes and to discuss the focus of each learner's learning programme at Certificate, Diploma and Degree level)

Graduation

Other than with the traditional model where success is measured by a formal examination, to successfully complete this programme and obtain the qualification the learner has to demonstrate module specific outcomes as well as critical cross-field outcomes. Module specific outcomes include capabilities relating to module knowledge and the understanding thereof within a management leadership context, and capabilities relating to integrated knowledge and skills from a variety of disciplines within the management leadership field. Critical cross-field outcomes include those specified in the learning outcomes for approved modules in the programme. These capabilities are assessed by making use of field and laboratory investigations, problem solving, the integration of knowledge and skills and independent study and teamwork. It is also one of the aims of the programme to develop communication skills, personal goal setting and the achievement of objectives.

The curriculum consists of modules in three main fields of study namely Management, Leadership and Environment. The total learning programme is designed to be the equivalent of a standard three-year management leadership degree. Entry to the learning programme occurs through the successful completion of the Portfolio development series where a student will, amongst others, apply for credit of prior learning.

A fourth area of competence, Lifelong Learning, is possibly the area that is the most critical on this programme and is the area where the deviation from the standard mainstream education is most visible. Lifelong learning encompasses the knowledge, skills and attitudes associated with the level and scale of learning. This includes fundamental skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening as well as complex skills such as goal setting, problem solving, decision-making and evaluation.

The role of the administrator in an adult learning programme

For many prospective adult learners the administrator is probably the first link between the workplace and the academic world of tertiary studies and the first contact that a prospective adult learner makes with an academic institution.

In the context of a South African rural University it is vital to address the fears, potential and hopes of adult learners in a supportive and understanding manner. To fully understand what we mean by this, I would like to introduce the Conference to some of our learners in the

programme. Let them speak for themselves.

The support system in an adult programme is not only important during the period of application but should be available throughout the period of study.

Academic information

Before the formal application the administrator will interview the prospective learner to spell out the details of the program. An in depth conversation about the content of the programme is important to ensure that the learner knows what he/she is venturing into.

Because the need for well-equipped managers with the ever-needed leadership skills, specifically within an economic and financial environment, is so important in our country, the BML programme was developed with this in mind. A short summary of how the programme is constructed and presented would demonstrate why the programme is currently in great demand.

Recognition and assessment of prior learning

This is probably one of the exiting parts of the programme – for the learner as well as the presenter and academics. Although a complete new dimension for many - formal as well as informal learning that has taken place could be assessed and recognized. This is however one aspect that should still be explored and refined in South Africa.

Administering the BML Programme

The concept of experiential learning and the recognition thereof as knowledge at an University level, brought along a vast variety of new challenges with regard to the day to day running of such programmes. Not only is it necessary make a paradigm shift of how and when learning could take place, but it is also important that administrative personnel would realize that an adult learning programme could never be dealt with in the same way as with the traditional mainstream student. Demands for new procedures and ways of admitting adult learners to University, banking of academic credits, issuing result statements etc., are but a few areas where new creative thinking and programmes will be requested.

The delivery modes and teaching-learning procedure

The course is a part-time course and is offered in three different modes:

- On campus - at the UFS campus. These classes are offered on Friday afternoons and one full Saturday per month.
- Off campus at centers around the country. Presently there are two centers, one at Johannesburg and the other in Mosselbay. This is a small beach town situated on the south coast in South Africa.
- On-line through E-degree learning. This mode of delivery will be discussed at great length.

Lectures are offered for the transmission of the content and the understanding of the concept

and theories. Group work is an essential part of the learning process and is instrumental in the development of team skills. Experiential learning is the underlying theory for all modules offered in the program. The learning experience and the learning outcomes proved a means to a balanced, reflective and individually tailored BML degree.

The way forward

It is a costly and often impractical arrangement to have centers around the country. Since this programme is unique in South Africa, the ideal is to bring it closer to as many adult learners as possible. Working adults, and specifically future leaders and managers are often out of town and not available to attend classes. The alternative was to put the programme on line so that it would be accessible to more people.

One of the drivers of globalization in the educational sector is the use of the Internet in distance education courses. However, the university of the Free State is a small university with limited technological infrastructure and no experience of online education to manage under these circumstances. The UFS formed a partnership with Riverbend Learning Systems/eDegree in Johannesburg, which has considerable experience in the area of distance learning and was due to enter the online learning market in 2000. The initial results of the collaboration were the lightly technologies online version of the distance B Comm with use of e-mail and a web site by some of the students. This partnership has now been extended to other courses and the first online BML class was registered in May of this year.

The principles behind the online version.

One of the philosophical anchors of this programme is the reliance of learners on the group and the support gained from the members. One has to foster this, and more so with the online version since it can become a lonely way of learning. For that reason the PDC course is not offered online, but is fully interactive and offered at the e-degree learning center in Johannesburg. It takes six days of intensive discussion, interaction and learning and the basis of the group cohesion is formed there.

All courses are designed for the online learning environment and ample use is made of the advantages of Internet links. All modules are represented on a timeline with synchronous and a-synchronous discussions built in on a regular basis. Each new online group is assigned a community manager, who will manage the group in terms of discussion, problems, assignments etc and this manager will stay with the group until completion of the course. In addition to the community manager, three academic online lecturers, one for each of the learning areas, is appointed to facilitate learning discussions, address problems of academic nature and access assignments.

The first group has completed the PDC and has also done the first three leadership modules interactively. One must keep in mind that this mode of delivery for the BML is still in the experimental phase, but the possibility of offering these three modules fully online, is being investigated. One will have to keep a fine balance between interactivity and online delivery so that the best of both can be fully utilized.

Concluding remarks

The process of programme development is never complete. Lecturers, learners and the program

management are continuously accessing and reflecting on the learning outcomes, the process involved and pointing out shortcomings that need to be addressed. On the basis of this information the programme is adapted and improved where necessary. This also complies with SAQA's requirements regarding quality control.

In the context of South African Higher education, the programme presents unique opportunities for recognizing prior learning and enabling adult learners to reconcile the demands of work schedules with learning programs.

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Are we being transformed? High achieving "imposters" building collegiality in an upper division seminar on adult education.

Abstract: As co-learners in a seminar, we discovered something about efficacy and misperceptions of efficacy. When one feels like an impostor, one intimidates others with their efficacy. What Deschler described as socialization being exorcised must be performed repeatedly. This thick description emphasizes that we, as educators and learners, must continuously think critically about relationships in the learning and teaching processes.

The authors discuss transformational experiences gleaned from their Adult Education seminar. With the help of Elliott and Carla, Janet initiates a journey through critical reflection with the goal of becoming a critical thinker. Her determination, honesty, and willingness to share her experiences lead Elliott and Carla on similar transformational journeys.

An Adult Education Seminar was designed to encourage students to serve as facilitators. The seven students in the class were encouraged to "pose questions to help the class review the reading and apply it to their lives." While deliberately reflecting on their own adult learning process, students were encouraged to consider the diverse experiences of other adult learners. The small size of the class permitted us to move from the classroom to a seminar room and to get to know each other well. We met once each week from six until eighth-thirty and chose to share responsibility for bringing food for dinner. Most students found eating together helped us build familiarity. The text Learning in Adulthood does an excellent job of reviewing research in the field. The authors of this paper were especially attracted to themes and wrote papers on critical thinking (Janet), the learning process of senior citizens (Carla), and the relationship of experience and education as it promotes social change (Elliott and Carla).

The relationship among the students varied – several class participants came from a diversity class that was organized in approximately the same way with students being responsible for leading discussion of course topics. Carla, such a diversity class student, was in her final undergraduate semester and was working on her senior project designed, with the help of Elliott in another class to improve adult learning in the university's Elderhostel program. Janet and Elliott were very familiar with each other from their work in a very small class on organizational culture. Janet had demonstrated a very strong work ethic by carefully reading Weber and a wide range of papers from sociology, industrial and labor relations, and business. She intended to develop a long term study program which would enable her to promote organizational learning in her place of employment. Janet's frank statements often led to post-class discussions among the authors and to the idea of this paper.

The first example of Janet expressing a feeling that was at odds with her behavior came in the first student-led seminar. One of many examples of her conscientiousness and perhaps her over-preparation was her volunteering to facilitate the first two chapters. She did this although she had less experience in seminars than other students who had participated in the instructor's seminar on cultural diversity. She came to the seminar white with fear and stated as much in addition to her protestations about not having time to prepare properly. After providing a well-organized and thorough series of questions to lead us through the introductory chapters of Merriam and Caffarella, Janet exclaimed in direct contradiction with her attitude at the beginning of the class, "That was fun." This inspired Elliott to point out the difference between her earlier estimation of her preparation and the final result. Janet, in such a case of receiving a compliment for good work, typically makes a joke or changes the subject.

Elliott often begins his classes by encouraging students to ask questions. This is a way to begin discussion from student interests or needs. He will even suggest that there is no such thing as a stupid question – that often what a student believes is a silly question will occur to another classmate on the trip home. Of course, some undergraduates are able to wile away class time by asking questions. Adult students in our classes are less likely to do so. Complaints about difficult reading material are so common that an instructor must often get beyond such questions in order to encourage student growth. Previous adult education classes have complained about this particular graduate level text. On another occasion, when Janet stated that the whole chapter went right over her head with a forceful gesture, Elliott was tempted to start from the basics on self-directed learning by asking questions of other students and the student responsible for facilitating our discussion of the topic.. Instead, given Janet's record of careful preparation in this and another class, Elliott asked "Which part of the chapter was confusing?" Janet began a point-by-point review of the ideas of Brookfield and what she saw as contradictions in such a rigorous manner that it would add to our understanding of adult education, Brookfield, and the authors of the text. What initially appeared to be the start of a tedious review, became an animated heartfelt critique and a meaningful introduction to the dynamic nature of theoretical discussion in the field of Adult Education. Both other co-authors carefully pointed out to Janet how different her estimation of her understanding was from her actual understanding and thanked her for her leadership. This was one of the most straightforward examples of Janet dismissing her accomplishments. This exchange led to an extended discussion among the authors. Elliott pointed out the complex nature of Janet's analysis as directly contradictory to her claim not to understand a thing. "Had any of her classmates or her instructor read the chapter as carefully as she had?" He designed a mantra for Janet that attempted to join the two cases. "I am efficacious and it is fun." Carla suggested the possibility of the "imposter phenomena." In this after-class or hallway discussion Carla and Elliott both noted that they both shared some of Janet's fears. Elliott was particularly struck by the logical contradictions; Carla was especially sensitive to the painful personal feelings.

Janet noted how this class and another class on Women's Global Issues had synergistically confronted her with the relevance of concepts of critical thinking (Brookfield; Mezirow in Merriam and Caffarella, 1999), locus of control (Rotter, 1966), self efficacy (Bandura, 1977), and multiple role realism (Weitzman, 1994) to her own empowerment. She wrote an eight page exploration of how she related to these concepts for the Women's Global Issues class. In a manner very similar to her work in the adult education class, this document is equally full of insight and self-depreciation. "Sometimes I don't even have a clue, ... am not even suspicious." "How could a person reach the fourth decade and never know?" Janet follows this question with a colon then lists all the concepts above. She further chides herself for not even thinking about multiple possible selves and possible futures. While most would praise her creativity for juxtaposing these concepts from two courses, Janet criticizes herself for not discovering these major breakthroughs herself.

Janet's careful notes include hints to her careful study and her difficulty giving herself credit for her work. "I know these tools and theories are for defining myself ... but I think I felt they were complicated, confusing .. and to utilize them would require a great deal of time. ... seems like a lot of trouble to find myself - why go looking. I'm right here." These doubts are followed immediately by a quotation from Cunningham (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999, 85) and a claim that she can "create knowledge" instead of being a member of the "coping underclass." Janet uses a colorful expression to note confusion by which she often means logical inconsistency – "those ideas put ants all over me." Janet differs from both Elliott and Carla in this quest for systematic order. She once charted theoretical differences for the class. Sometimes she focuses on word-by-word definition, but at times she displays wonderful insight. For example, her analysis of how the two classes combined to provide her with a critical incident. Adult education addressed locus of control in a broader interdisciplinary and applied manner. The psychology section of the Global issues course used specific evidence from one discipline. Instead of doubting

herself and looking for definition, Janet found her own strong insight, which she labeled transformational learning. "It popped me out of what's on paper only – it's essential to check a work's application to my life, not just its definition."

Through Janet's straightforward comments, Elliott and Carla discovered more about themselves and their tendencies to fall subject to the impostor phenomena. Elliott has been told by a trusted counselor to "shut up, accept the compliment, and say thank you." All of us have avoided praise by suggesting we, "know how to look good on the surface and cover up all (we) don't know; or .. (we) were able to charm teachers into liking (us), and the good grades were due more to (our) personalities than to (our) intelligence; or (we) stuck to the notion that (we) worked harder than everyone else and were therefore able to make up for (our) intellectual deficiencies"(Clance, 1985, 89)

Impostor Phenomenon

The impostor phenomenon occurs when a high-achieving individual attributes her success to some external event or circumstance, rather than her own intelligence or ability. The difference between false modesty and the impostor phenomenon, is that the individual truly believes that she is not due credit for her achievement, and that somewhere around the corner lies the event that will expose her to the world as the undeserving impostor that she truly is. This results in the individual living in constant fear of being "found out" which further contributes to an exhaustive cycle of over-achieving activity, anxiety and depression, and finally, relief, when success is achieved. Success (and relief) is short-lived, however, as this cycle is repeated each time a new achievement-oriented challenge presents itself.

The theory behind the impostor phenomenon was developed by two psychotherapists, Dr. Suzanne Imes and Dr. Pauline Clance, while conducting research together in 1974. Several studies have been conducted to test the theory with promising results (Holmes et al; Clance and Imes; King and Cooley; Matthews and Clance; Olszewski, Klieke, and Buescher; Topping and Kimmel).

Dr. Pauline Clance's book, The Impostor Phenomenon, illustrates the phenomenon using case studies. One case study in particular draws clear parallels to Carla's own feelings of inadequacy as a student. Beginning on page 11, Clance describes a doctoral student's test-anxiety both before and after a test. "Jane", though an excellent student, clearly over-prepares for a test, but feels pretty good about it, once she is writing the test. After the test, however, she goes for a beer with some other students. After listening to the answers they gave on the test, she is plummeted, once again, into anxiety and self-loathing until she gets her test back, with an "A". The cycle repeats itself with the next test. Even though her professors tell her she is doing well, she doesn't believe them, and the cycle is continued. Other cases in the book mention that an "impostor" believes they are given good grades, or promotions, because someone likes them, feels sorry for them, because they are a minority, or any other reason other than that they truly earned it.

At the end of the case study on Jane (13), a striking parallel is drawn between Jane and Janet. Janet believed that she "wasn't getting it" and "couldn't keep up in the course." Although Elliot continued to encourage Janet, commend her on her understanding of the material, and praise her fine, scholastic achievements, Janet (like Jane) "remains unconvinced that she really is a very intelligent, competent woman."

Though this theory sounds a little bizarre, Clance and Imes developed it as a result of documented accounts of their own patients who exhibited this same set of beliefs about themselves. To the people who are imprisoned in this belief system, the resulting fear, depression, and anxiety are very real and debilitating.

One of the primary effects of the phenomenon is that it inhibits the high-achiever's education and career goals. As the individual continues in the cycle, the pressure to perform increases with each new challenge. Thus, many relinquish further educational and career pursuits, because of self-doubt and fear of failure.

Carla states, "I would have not continued my studies if not spurred on by my husband and professors. And even now, I am very limiting in my career goals, still not knowing 'what anyone will hire me to do.' Even as I ponder this self-deprecating viewpoint, I realize that it is a false belief system that must be overturned. But the struggle is a constant one."

Janet, too, appears ambiguous about her career goals. It's almost as if she is getting her degree to prove to her coworkers, bosses, and even family, that she really is smart. But, at the same time, she does not seem to have any career goals that will allow her to move beyond her clearly limiting employment situation.

According to Clance and Imes, the reason that the impostor phenomenon cycle is so hard to break, is that it develops early in childhood out of achievement-oriented parental and family messages. There are four primary elements that Clance and Imes have identified: (305)

1. as children, impostors believe their talents are atypical for their family, race, or gender;
2. the feedback these children receive from teachers, peers, or neighbors is inconsistent with family feedback;
3. family members do not recognize or praise these children for their accomplishments and talents; and
4. family members convey to the children that it is very important to be intelligent and successful with little effort.

One or more of these elements may be at work in an "impostor". Janet's description of her family life and all of her smart brothers and sisters, hints at such a situation. In Carla's own family, item number four strikes a cord.

In chapter eight of her book, Clance discusses the impostor's mastery at "denial of competence and discounting praise." Janet and Carla are both seasoned experts at this. Notice how Janet (and Carla) can change the subject to another person when they are praised? Or, the fact that they always have a reason that has nothing to do with our their abilities or intelligence? Janet even uses humor to get the subject off of her. The point of the chapter is that again, this is not false modesty, but a tragic, false belief system about oneself. (Clance, 1985, 88-90)

As stated in King and Cooley's article, "Achievement Orientation and the Impostor Phenomenon among College Students," there are several significant implications of the impostor phenomenon for those who experience it. They include, "high levels of unnecessary stress and anxiety, more frequent self-dissatisfaction, a lack of self-confidence... detrimental effects on interpersonal relationships," as well as adverse effects on enjoyment of success and educational and career goals (310-11). The impostor phenomenon like Dave Deschler's "socialization" must be exorcized again and again.

Carla's Critical Incident

When Janet bluntly told Carla that she was intimidated by her (Carla) and then told her "Well, you can see why you are intimidating to someone like me, can't you?" Carla was disturbed that she had intimidated her classmate. This launched Carla on a mini-journey of self to evaluate her own actions toward class members and the attitude she projected about her knowledge of the subject matter. Carla

discovered that she did not want to project an air of intimidation. She was familiar with much of the material because of other courses she had taken and she was quite knowledgeable about certain aspects of the material that she had researched extensively for a senior project. However, Carla felt guilty about not having thoroughly read all of the material for the present course. Perhaps she was projecting a "knowing" attitude to cover up for what she believed to be inadequate class preparation? Because of Janet's question, Carla took a big dose of humility, which enabled her to reach out to her classmates, sharing the applicable knowledge she had acquired in other studies, in an effort to truly foster a group learning process.

During the summer session, Carla had a related experience in a graduate course. Carla's classmates were young marketing students, who were taking an organizational communication course as an elective. Organizational communication is Carla's educational track and she has had several undergraduate courses relating to it. Much of the information was new to the marketing students, but familiar to Carla. Once again, Carla found herself in a situation similar to Elliot's class. But now, she was armed with the new-found information that she could be intimidating when she feels intimidated or unsure of her abilities. She was determined not to make the same mistake she had made with Janet. Consequently, Carla was hesitant about joining in the class discussions because she did not want to intimidate the other students.

One night, however, a discussion was in progress that badly needed redirection. It was clear that a marketing student had missed the point being made by a written hand-out about a workplace situation. Carla was determined not to come across intimidating, but felt compelled to correct the fellow student's misconception of the material. Though her words were kind, Carla's tone of voice belied her impatience with what she considered to be the student's excessive rambling about a topic which she had little knowledge. The look on the student's face told Carla immediately that she had come on too strong. It appeared there was something deeper going on that Carla needed to investigate within herself, if she was going to learn to communicate with others in a more positive way.

Another incident in the Summer class, nailed the problem. After hearing others present their final papers, which were organizational case study analyses, Carla was painfully aware that her paper did not measure up because she had failed to cite the works studied in the class, even though the professor did not ask for this. When it came time to present her paper, Carla was aware, that because of her previous organizational communication studies, she had included elements in her case study analysis, which were missing from the other student's papers. Carla presented her analysis, pointing out these elements with an air of superiority. When she finished, she looked around and realized that the faces of several students had fallen. She had done it again.

Carla spent some time in critical reflection. She began to see that she had used intimidation in both of these incidents to mask her own fears of failure, unacceptance, and inadequacy. Looking back to the incident with Janet, she realized that she had done the same thing then. When Carla felt unprepared or inadequate she compensated with an air of superiority about the material with which she was already somewhat familiar. This caused communication breakdowns in the group dynamics and hurt relationships with her fellow students. Carla became and continues to be determined more than ever to be aware of this defensive and compensatory mechanism she tended to employ, in hopes of breaking this cycle. Her goal is to promote open communication that results in intellectual growth and enriches relationships for all.

We were and are still being transformed by our relationship with each other. By recognizing issues of gender, locus of control, the imposter phenomenon, and self-efficacy in the classroom we are better able to think critically of the learning relationships and the processes that develop between students and teachers. Constantly reevaluating the students' knowledge base, context, efficacy and levels of

achievement enables us to transcend self-deprecating views and false belief systems within us all. Otherwise we will continue to be impostors and classrooms will not be built upon mutual self-respect and caring. Thus we can constantly remain in the process of being transformed.

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AHEA 2001 Conference Paper Abstract

Presentation Title

A conceptual framework of examining factors which influence adult learners' use and learning of Internet technologies

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Abstract

The Internet has become a useful educational medium and provides new learning experiences for adult students that were not previously possible. Moreover, unlike other traditional educational technologies of the past, the Information superhighway is available to students. No longer are adult learners solely dependent upon a single faculty member to adopt a new practice, such as the Internet in instruction. Recent literature has shown that many adult students have taken advantage of new technology and participate in the new global communication and information retrieval to support their own learning in higher education settings. However, to ensure the participation of all adult learners in information revolution and to provide more opportunities for adult learners' use and learning of technologies, educators must first understand the factors that inhibit or encourage technology use. This paper presents a conceptual framework of examining factors which influence adult learners' use and learning of Internet technologies based on a review of literature from the field of adult education, cognitive and social aspects of learning theories, technology and society, and diffusion of innovation in communication technology and the related empirical studies. Twelve factors within three categories, including internalized factors, external factors, and technological factors, were identified in understanding adult learners' use and learning of Internet technologies. The paper concludes with the discussion

of emerging research suggestions and the implications for the field of education.

The Texas Adult Education Credential Model

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Professionalization of adult education has been an ongoing controversy in the field for many years (e.g. Foster, 1988; Kazemek, 1988; Imel, 1989, and Perin 1999). One of the primary means of professionalizing any field is by establishing a certification or credential in that field. Adult education is no exception. For example, the National Adult Education Professional Development Consortium (NAEPDC) has listed certification and professional development of teachers as action items for improving the quality of education adults receive (National Literacy Summit, 2000). Similarly, many states have begun developing a credential process for adult education teachers.

In Texas, a credential for adult educators is under consideration. The Texas Credential Project is funded by the Texas Education Agency and housed at the Center for Initiatives in Education at Southwest Texas State University. The Project has developed a model for a Texas adult education credential that is grounded in adult learning theory, research, and the particular needs of the adult education field in Texas. Through surveys, focus groups, literature reviews, and formal and informal meetings in the field, the credential staff gathered feedback on what a model for an adult education credential in Texas should entail. Using this data, the credential model was designed to be flexible yet provide credible standards for all adult educators, whether full-time or part-time, experienced and new teachers. In 2000, piloting of the credential model was begun. Adult educators across the state used the credential model to structure their professional development. The first phase of the pilot program ended in June 2001. The field test will begin in the Fall of 2001. The purpose of this paper is to introduce the reader to the key elements of the Texas Adult Education Credential Model.

But first, it is important to understand why the establishment of a credential is so important and controversial. Unlike many other areas of education or human service, adult education has no commonly recognized credential or other mechanism designed to ensure quality of practice. The lack of a credential is one indication that the adult education field has not attained the status of a profession (National Literacy Summit, 2000).

Establishing an adult education credential has been part of an ongoing dialogue regarding the advantages and disadvantages of further professionalizing the field of adult education. Many factors have contributed to the prominence of this debate. For example, increased attention to issues of accountability on many levels has caused policy makers to look to professional development to raise the standards of quality and preparedness in teachers (National Institute for Literacy State Policy Update, 2000). Other factors that have included the use of often untrained or inadequately trained volunteer tutors, the need for a more systematic and structured approach for effective professional development, and a concurrent debate regarding what skills and knowledge are necessary to be an effective teacher (Imel, 1989).

Many states and national organizations are reacting to this debate by beginning to establish standards or teaching requirements. A recent survey by the National Adult Education Professional Development Consortium (NAEPDC) reveals that roughly half of all states require

certification for adult education instructors (National Institute for Literacy State Policy Update, 2000). However, most of these states do not base their certification requirements on the theory and practice of adult education. Rather, many states require a K-12 teaching certificate or a bachelor's degree in any field. These types of certification requirements do not consider instructor education on the special needs and practices that are most effective for teaching adults (Kutner, et al., 1992).

Similarly, several national organizations have begun calling for the implementation of standards to ensure quality instruction. Specifically, many organizations are seeking a credential that requires special training in the field of adult education. For example, The National Literacy Summit (2000) met to establish shared goals for a literate America and to write a plan to achieve those goals. The summit agreed upon three main priorities for adult education and literacy in the United States: resources, access, and quality. The priority of quality is defined as creating "a system of high quality education and support services that helps adults meet their goals as parents, workers, and community members" (National Literacy Summit, 2000, p. 7). Outcome D under the heading "Quality" calls for staff to be involved in varied professional development activities to upgrade their knowledge and skills. This in turn leads to Action Item 1, which states, "Ensure that all states establish a certification process for instructional staff based on standards that value both academic knowledge and life experience, and include alternative assessment methods such as portfolios" (National Literacy Summit, 2000, p. 8).

Many state legislatures have joined this national effort by enacting legislation that requires their state education agency to codify the standards or that mandates a certification plan. The Texas Education Agency (TEA) with authority granted by the Texas State Legislature has funded the establishment of a credential model for adult educators. The Adult Education Credential Project in the Center for Initiatives in Education at Southwest Texas State University was established to develop flexible alternatives for all adult education teachers to earn a credential.

The Credential Model

The Credential Model is structured so that adult educators can choose their own professional development options, while still maintaining a balance across content areas that ensure that each instructor will have a background in the areas that will be needed. In other words, instructors must balance their professional development activities across six disciplines, while they are free to choose exactly how they will participate in the professional development in that area.

There are four models for the credential for full-time new teachers, part-time new teachers, full-time experienced teachers, and part-time experienced teachers. Essentially, the differences are in the amount of time allowed to accrue the professional development and in how previous professional development activities are handled. For each of the four models the content and points required is the same.

The content areas were developed after an extensive research process. Data were gathered through surveys, extensive library research, consultant feedback, and dialogue with new and experienced educators. Also, the U. S. Department of Education's Instructor Competencies and Performance Indicators of Program Quality were reviewed.

The content areas for the Adult Education Credential Model also correlate to the core content areas of the New Teacher Project. Both the New Teacher Institute and the New Teacher Toolkit were designed in conjunction with the Adult Education Credential Model. This was done to provide consistency in professional development across Texas. The New Teacher Toolkit also

serves as an introduction and an initial requirement of the Credential Model.

Principles of adult learning.

The first content area is Principles of Adult Learning. This content area stress the theory behind adult education. Theorists such as Malcolm Knowles and Stephen Brookfield are leaders in the field and have helped establish a core of principles that adult education teachers can incorporate into their curriculum, their approach, and their attitude. These principles include an emphasis on prior experience, critical reflection, transformative learning, and internal motivation (e.g. Knowles, 1980; 1984; Meziro, 1991; Brookfield 1986, 1990).

The teaching-learning transaction with adult students.

The second content area is the Teaching-Learning Transaction with Adult Students. This content area is the key to success of both the adult learner and the adult educator. This area encompasses all of the actual fundamentals of teaching adult educators including ideas on materials, themes, and activities to incorporate into the classroom and classroom management, organization, motivation, and people-skills that are essential to helping adult learners be successful.

Diverse learning styles, abilities, and cultures.

The third content area is Diverse Learning Styles, Abilities, and Cultures. Adult learners often have special concerns and difficulties that may need to be addressed before learning can occur. The issue of diversity in any form is often at the heart of these issues. Professional development in diverse learning styles may include a workshop on multiple intelligences or other theorists techniques for helping students understand their learning preferences and increase their facility with styles that do not come as naturally to them. Learning differences, learning difficulties, and learning disabilities often all need to be addressed by adult educators. Professional development activities might include strategies that help teachers incorporate techniques that allow all students to better concentrate and retain information. Multicultural and socioeconomic issues are often concerns in adult education classes. Teachers may need to select and modify teaching materials and learning strategies to accommodate this diversity.

Integrating technology into adult learning.

Current trends indicate that knowledge of technology will continue to play an increasingly significant role in our society. Adult educators must be prepared to help learners utilize this resource. This can be important not only in job skills, but in life skills as well. Core proficiencies are being developed for adult educators in Texas by Project Inter-ALT, a special program funded by the Texas Education Agency.

Accountability systems.

Currently there is a focus on accountability for adult education services in Texas. The challenge lies in the documentation of successful adult education. Documentation may be formal or informal. It includes mandates assessment, authentic assessment (such as portfolios), teacher proficiencies, recruitment, and retention. Professional development activities on procedures for administration, retaining and tracking students, TABE and BEST administration would all fall under this content area.

Field participation.

Adult educators need to learn not only from pre-structured professional development activities but also from working and collaborating with their colleagues. This content area would include activities such as instructor observations, mentorships, study groups, and web page development.

Delivery System

The delivery system of the Credential Model was designed to meet the particular needs of the field of adult educators in Texas. Flexibility was built into the system to allow adult educators to take advantage of the opportunities and resources that were available to them in their region and to provide them with the option of tailoring their professional development to their unique situation in terms of their experience level, teaching assignment, and the needs of their particular students. To this end, four separate models were eventually developed to allow for the different needs of adult educators in Texas. The four models are for (1) new, full-time teachers, (2) new, part-time teachers, (3) experienced, full-time teachers, and (4) experienced, part-time teachers.

However, the basic requirements and overall structure of all four of the Credential Models is the same. This is because ultimately every teacher needs to have a background in all of the core content areas in order to be an effective adult education teacher. The decision to make the basic requirements for all four models was based on research the credential model conducted through surveys, focus groups, and an extensive literature review.

The Credential Model also builds on the strengths of the current professional development framework in Texas. The Texas Professional Development Consortium is a group of special projects funded by the Texas Education Agency who provide professional development across the state. These professional development opportunities are all possible delivery options for points towards the Credential.

Common Elements of the Four Models

General requirements.

There are several general requirements that are consistent across the four credential models. First, a bachelor's degree in any field is the pre-requisite for initiating the credential process.

While most of the Credential is earned by selecting professional development from a wide variety of choices, there are a few mandatory requirements. All instructors are required to attend a New Teacher Institute, to have an instructional evaluation by a project-approved team member, and to participate in Project IDEA or other teacher action research externship.

The point system

The Credential Model states that one of its greatest strengths is the movement away from "seat-time" requirements in professional development to a point-system that requires teachers to demonstrate what they have learned and how they are going to use the information from a particular activity. A point-system is used by the Credential Model in two ways. First, there are a certain number of points that an instructor needs to receive within each core content area. These values are as follows: Principles of Adult Learning (25 points), The Teaching-Learning Transaction (30 points), Diverse Learning Styles, Abilities, and Cultures (20 points), Integrating Technology into Adult Learning (20 points), Accountability Systems (20 points), and Field

participation (15 points).

Points are also used in another important way. Each type of professional development activity has a certain number of points allocated to it. For example, attending a university course is worth 30 points and attending a one-day workshop is worth 5 points. For all four Credential Models 125 points are required to receive the credential.

Flexibility.

The Credential Model points out that it is a flexible model in three important ways. First, any professional development activity may involve one or more content area, and therefore, the points for that activity may be divided among the appropriate content areas for that activity. For example, a three-semester-hour university course, which is valued at 30 points, may cover topics that relate to three content areas. The Credential Project will determine the point allocation for that activity, which in this example may be Principles of Adult Learning (15 points), the Teaching-Learning Transaction (10 points), and Diverse Learning Styles, Abilities, and Cultures (5 points).

Second, educators may choose which professional development activities they wish to engage in. One educator may opt to take two university courses, while another educator may attend several workshops and participate in study groups to earn the same number of points. As long as the points are earned across the content areas according to the rubric in Figure X, then how they are earned is up to the participant.

Third, the Credential Model recommends that adult educators select professional development activities that relate to the subject area for which they teach. For example, adult educators who teach English as a Second Language (ESL) are encouraged to choose professional development options that incorporate the core content areas into the context of teaching ESL. This flexibility allows instructors to make certain that the professional development will be relevant to their teaching and can be immediately put to use in the classroom.

Critical reflection.

At the heart of all of the versions of the credential model is critical reflection. After each professional development activity, participants are required not only to explain what they learned from the experience but how they plan to use it in the classroom. This step is crucial to the success of the philosophy behind the credential model.

The Four Models

In each of the models, completion of 125 points is required for a teacher to receive a credential. The differences in the four models lie the amount of time that the instructors have to complete the points and ability of experienced teachers to gain credit for previous professional development activities.

New full-time instructors should complete the first 100 points towards their credential within two years of attending the New Teacher Institute. Participation in Project IDEA in the third year completes the 125 points.

New part-time instructors have five years to acquire the first 100 points toward their credential from the time of attending the New Teacher Institute. Participation in Project IDEA in the sixth year completes the 125 points.

Experienced educators also have the opportunity to receive credit for prior professional development activities over the last five years and prior graduate course work over the last seven years. The Credential Model explains that the professional development and graduate course work must be related to the credential core content areas. Instructors must provide written documentation of participation in the activity and a summary of how this professional development activity affected their practice in the classroom in order to receive credit.

Conclusion

The Texas Adult Education Credential model has just finished its first phase of piloting and will soon begin an initial field test. These tests will help determine the viability of this model for an adult education credential in Texas. This model strives to balance required core content with flexibility in its delivery system. It strives to help adult educators think about professional development opportunities beyond attending a conference, while building on the existing professional development structure in Texas. And it strives to help adult educators become better teachers, a worthy goal.

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Standardizing Texas Adult Educator Professional Development:

Adult Education New Teacher Project

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History – Overview

Prior to 1998, the state of Texas did not have a standardized teacher preparation curriculum for the field of adult education. Many teachers had formal education, work experience, and training in their field of study, but most did not have any formal training or classes in adult education. The National Education Professional Development Consortium (NAEPDC) states that over 95% of adult educators have college degrees, whereas only 31% of adult education teachers have any sort of adult education qualifications(Quigley, 1997). "Only eleven states have developed a credentialing process for adult educators. The other 39 states have either no required set of criteria for hiring adult educators as mandated by their state agency, or rely on criteria that is not based on the theory and practice of adult education"(Payne, 2001). The credential document also states that only four states require a bachelors degree in any field, this includes Texas(2001).

There is not a standard infrastructure set up in the United States "pertaining to" adult education. The field of adult education in the U.S. does not have standard policies or practices set up to provide consistent communication of information, data collection, and professional advancement (Sticht, McDonald, & Erickson, 1998). According to the Texas State Plan for Adult Education and Family Literacy the Texas Education Agency is in the process of developing an accountability system(TEA, 1999).

With the intent to further professionalize the field of adult education, two grants were written by the Center for Initiatives in Education, which is housed in the College of Education at Southwest Texas State University. The two grants: The Adult Education Credential Project and Professional Development for Teacher New to Adult Education (the New Teacher Project) were funded starting in 1998. The Credential Project's main objectives were and continue to be to create and implement a credentialing process for Adult Educators in Texas. The New Teacher Project's main objective was to create a New Teacher Orientation model, which includes a six-hour institute curriculum and a New Teacher Toolkit. Further explanation of the Toolkit will follow. For the purpose of this project, New Teachers are defined as teachers who have taught in adult education for less than two years. In the proposed credential model, the New Teacher Institute is the first step for adult education teachers to earn their credential.

In order to assure that the model, institute, and Toolkit include information appropriate for the field, the New Teacher project staff, in collaboration with the Credential project staff, gathered information from state adult education departments throughout the United States and Canada. An on-line survey was posted to the state adult education directors' listserv. The New Teacher Project also presented sessions at state and national conferences where they discussed the model, institute, and Toolkit contents to teachers and administrators in the field adult education. These presentations included a systematic feedback procedure typically using an open-ended questionnaire instrument; with this information the staff could hear what recommendations the field had regarding the content and structure of a new teacher orientation.

A second survey instrument was developed seeking information teachers and administrators regarding the professional development of adult educators in Texas. This survey was administered through the TEA and Texas Association for Literacy and Adult Education (TALAE) state conferences, various Adult Education Professional Development Consortium (AEPDC)-sponsored training sessions, and local adult education programs. Survey respondents were asked, "What would you recommend a standard 'toolkit for teachers' include?" Out of 280 surveys received, 187 provided a response to this question. Using quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods, various themes consistently emerged. These included:

- Theory of how adults learn
- Curriculum development and lesson planning (general)
- Overview of adult education -funding streams, policies and procedures, program collaborations, current trends (e.g. Equipped for the Future, Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, Indicators of Program Quality)
- Observe and work with an experienced teacher/mentor
- Information on teaching special populations (English as a Second Language, culturally different, learning disabled)
- Professional development options
- Strategies to foster interaction with other teachers and service providers

With information gained through research and from the field of adult education a Credential Model and New Teacher Orientation Model were developed. Based on the model, a New Teacher Toolkit was written. The New Teacher Institute model was demonstrated in six regional sites throughout Texas(Austin, Dallas, El Paso, Harlingen, Houston, Lubbock) with a total of 72 participants. Based on feedback from these institutes, the institute curriculum and Toolkit were modified. The Toolkit, which is used as a guide for the new teacher orientation, includes these primary sections: Adult Learning Theory; Teaching and Learning Transaction; Diverse Cultures, Styles, and Abilities; Accountability; Funding; and Continuing Professional Development; there is also a section for individual programs to include local program information. (Payne, 2001)

Institute Content

Principles of adult learning.

As previously mentioned, most adult educators have at least a bachelor's degree, but a majority of them have never had any classes or training in adult education. The first section of the Toolkit, which is titled Principles of Adult Learning is intended to give new teachers a foundation about adult learning theory. This section includes information that compares pedagogy to andragogy, and it also introduces the concepts of transformational, self-directed, and participatory learning. In this section, the Toolkit focuses on the work of adult education theorists Malcolm Knowles, Jack Mezirow, and Stephen Brookfield. During the institute, the participants break into groups and use the jigsaw method to examine the concepts of andragogy, self-directed learning, transformative learning, and participatory learning.

Another topic discussed in this section of the institute is the Model of Strategic Learning, a framework that was developed by Weinstein(1994). The goal of the model is to help adult educators obtain the skills which will help underprepared learners maximize their learning experiences and understand the importance of becoming lifelong learners. The concepts of skill, will, and self-regulation are discussed.

This section also includes an introduction to the National Institute for Literacy initiative Equipped

for the Future (EFF). A brief history is given along with the various roles that adult learners play in their everyday lives – parent/family, citizen/community, and worker(NIFL,1997).

Teaching – Learning Transaction with Adult Students.

After the new teachers have been introduced to the ideas of adult learning theory, the next logical topic is the application of the theory. The Teaching and Learning Transaction section emphasizes the importance of critical reflection for both the teacher and the student. This section includes articles discussing motivation, multi-level instruction, the learning pyramid, and active learning are included, along with how to use learner themes in the classroom and an explanation of project based learning.

Imel(1998) explains that reflection alone does not necessarily mean the reflection is critical. She continues with the idea that there are four essential elements: "assumption analysis, contextual awareness, imaginative speculation, and reflective skepticism"(1998). Imel advises that students will need support when they are asked to question their beliefs and assumptions and that teachers should be well prepared for this.

One of the many challenges adult educators face is that of recruitment and retention. Motivating adult students can be the deciding factor as to whether or not they decide to return to class(Wlodkowski, 1999). If students see how they can apply what they are learning in class to their lives outside the classroom, in other words, if they see benefit in the activity, they will be more motivated. Another way students gain motivation is by encountering a motivated teacher.

During the institute, participants are asked to describe characteristics of their favorite and best teachers. After a discussion about what made these teachers 'the best' the new teachers are introduced to the work of R.J Wlodkowski. Wlodkowski's book, *Enhancing Adult Motivation to Learn*(1999), lists five characteristics of a motivating instructor: expertise, enthusiasm, empathy, culturally responsive, and clarity. As another resource for the participants, the New Teacher Project gives each participant a copy of Wlodkowski's book.

Although motivation is a very important factor in adult learning, other factors such as active learning play a role as well. Both, Silberman in his book titled *Active Learning*(1996), and Glasser's diagram of the Learning Pyramid, show that if students only sit and listen to a lecture they do not retain much information; however the more they are involved in the activity, the more they will learn and retain. Two ways to incorporate active learning in the classroom are through teambuilding and the physical environment of the classroom (Silberman, 1996). During the institutes the trainers not only share ideas for teaching, but they also try to model these ideas in the activities. Also after each activity the teachers are asked to think of and discuss other ways they may present the same material.

One major challenge that adult educators face is the multi-level classroom. Even when students are tested and placed in classes based on test scores, classes will inevitably have students working at a variety of skill levels; this complicates assessment and academic placement with this population. During the institute teachers are given strategies for handling multi-level classes, including the use of: peer tutoring, various groupings, and being intentional about who is included in each group based on the activity (Bonwell & Eisen, 1991).

The final topic included in this section is how to use and apply learner themes in the classroom. These are learner based projects in which the students help choose the topic(s) or project(s) which the class will then study. In many cases the students not only help choose the topic, but they are also active participants in designing the curriculum.

Diverse Cultures, Styles, and Abilities.

Many factors(motivation, active learning activities) keep adults coming back to the classroom. One such factor is the idea of inclusion. Adult students need to feel included when they come to class; if they don't, they may stop coming. In Gardner's(1993) writings about multiple intelligences, he includes seven (later he added an eighth) intelligences, which he believes we are all born with. He states that due to social and cultural influences, some intelligences are more developed than others. During the institute, the teachers fill out a 'Pathways to Learning' activity, in which they rate statements based on their own learning preferences. Based on these scores they are able to see which of their intelligences are highly developed, moderately developed, and underdeveloped. Included with this section of the Toolkit is information about each of the intelligences, skills and learning techniques for developing each intelligence, and lesson ideas, which support each intelligence. The teachers can also take this activity back to their classes and let their students do the same activity.

The next important and controversial topic discussed in this section is teaching students with Learning Disabilities(LD). The Toolkit includes a definition given by the National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (as cited in Hammill, 1990), which states that "these disorders are intrinsic to the individual, presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction, and may occur across the life span". Since the trainers are not LD specialists or diagnosticians, it is explained that it is not the job of the teacher to diagnose students in their classroom. They should, on the other hand, know what the proper protocol is if they suspect that a student is having learning problems. There are legal issues associated with teaching the LD population that new teachers must be aware of. After this is discussed, teachers are asked to think about, define and/or list characteristics associated with learning disabilities. To conclude this section the Toolkit has hints for working effectively with adult literacy students who have learning disabilities(Osgood-Smith, 1992), instructional strategies for adults with learning disabilities, and hints for working with adult ESL literacy students with learning disabilities(NIFL). These hints and strategies are helpful not only for LD students, but all adult students. Also, since some participants teach ABE/ASE classes and others teach ESL classes, the orientation includes examples and ideas applicable for both populations.

Accountability, Funding, & Local Programming.

Accountability is a high priority in the field of adult education. The Texas State Plan says "all adult education data that will be used in the performance accountability system will originate from the Adult and Community Education System (ACES) management information system. ACES is TEA's web-enabled system that maintains student-by-student data, including demographic, assessment data, outcomes, as well as information about class, site, program, and provider information"(1999).

Adult education students who wish to take a classes are required to take either the Basic English Skills Test (BEST) or the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) depending on whether they are English as a Second Language (ESL) or Adult Basic Education (ABE)/ GED. Most teachers are required to go through BEST and/or TABE training; in knowing this, the New Teacher Institute only explains briefly what the tests are for those who do not know and that training's for those specific topics are offered at other times.

Student retention is also a major problem in adult education. The Toolkit includes two articles, which discuss how to improve student retention. In addition to that, this section includes a copy of the Indicators of Program Quality for Adult Education and Literacy Programs. "The Indicators of

Program Quality (IPQ's) . . . provide the framework for the scope and content of Texas adult education programs. As the foundation for the curricula . . . [mentioned in the Texas State Plan] and for professional development efforts (Texas has developed teacher proficiencies based on the IPQs as well), they include learner outcomes for Academic Development as well as Real World Applications, Preparation for Transition, Work force Development and Personal Development"(1999).

Also included in the Toolkit is an executive summary of the State Plan for Adult Education and Family Literacy(1999) which states the mission, goals and objectives for the field of Adult Education in Texas.

Response to NTI

Since the grant was funded, there have been 15 New Teacher Institutes with over 175 new teachers being trained. During each orientation institute, the participants are asked to evaluate the trainers and the content of the institute and Toolkit. The responses overall have been positive. Evaluation questions include both Lickert scale ratings and opened questions. Examples of questions using the Lickert scale(1-5) include usefulness of the information presented, knowledge and quality of the facilitators, and overall satisfaction with the session. The rating average was typically around 4.5.

When asked, "What did you like most about the institute?", responses included, "Information covered was clearly explained and very useful for teachers", and "Toolkit information is a great resource". Complaints included that there was not enough time for all the information and a follow-up would be beneficial.

Plans for the future include the implementation of a New Teacher Trainer Institute(NTTI) for experienced teachers. For the NTTI, experienced teachers who also have training as part of their responsibility will participate in a workshop, either on-site or via distance learning, where they learn how to train using the New Teacher Orientation model and Toolkit. The goal of the New Teacher Trainer Institute is to build the capacity of local adult education programs to provide quality in-house professional development for new teachers.

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The Good Fight:
Nineteenth Century American External Degree Programs

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ABSTRACT

The Good Fight: Nineteenth Century American External Degree Programs

Late in the nineteenth century, more than a dozen United States institutions established external degree programs. While many were innovative and popular, all had disappeared by the early 1900s. Academic snobbery, denominational politics, and economic considerations, both serious and petty, brought this first wave of *in absentia* degree opportunities to a close.

The Good Fight:

Nineteenth Century American External Degree Programs

On June 24, 1977, Williard Boyd, president of the University of Iowa, presented a long-awaited report to the Commission on Higher Education of the Middle States Association (MSA). This report represented the culminating step in the candidacy of the Regents of the University of the State of New York for the MSA's imprimatur for the awarding of undergraduate degrees (Nolan, 1998).

The accreditation of the Regents External Degree marked the success of a proposition voiced in 1970, by Ewald B. Nyquist, in his inaugural address as Commissioner of Education and President of the University of the State of New York. Nyquist had called upon the Regents to devise a means by which it could confer undergraduate degrees upon

those who are able to demonstrate knowledge and abilities equivalent to those of a degree recipient from a New York State college or university, regardless of how the candidates have prepared themselves. (cited in Nolan, 1998, p. 13).

He appealed to the State of New York to both recognize and respect the autodidact, the person who Charles Wedemeyer (1981) credited with "learning at the back door" (cite), the same adult audience Joseph Kett later described in *Learning Under Difficult Circumstances* (1994).

The program the Regents of the University of the State of New York created has been successful by any measure. It was arguably the first external degree program offered by an accredited institution in the United States. It has served as a model for other states and institutions. External degrees—now operating under a variety of models, from individual student-teacher contracts through correspondence courses and online study—are a fixture in American higher education. The Regents' program and those that followed it have succeeded where some ambitious attempts had failed a century earlier, when several American institutions had created external programs. They had faced vocal, effective opposition and were quickly eradicated.

A BATTLE FROM BRITAIN

Two differing British ideas of what a university should be greatly influenced the creators of the first external degree programs in the United States, for better and for worse. The first idea stressed a community of scholars. The second represented a logical extension of the established English practice in which instruction and the evaluation and credentialing processes operated independently of each other (Houle, 1973).

John Henry Cardinal Newman gave shape and authority to the former ideal in a series of addresses written and delivered in support of the establishment of a residential university in Dublin. He gave these addresses in 1852 and published them under the title of *The Idea of the University*, which would become one of the most influential books in the history of higher education.

Newman and people of a like mind opposed the second conception of what a university should be. The British government created the University of London in 1836 as a government bureau that would conduct examinations and confer degrees on behalf of two resident London Colleges, University College and King's College. In 1858 a new royal charter eliminated the requirement that candidates for its degree must have attended an approved institution, or any institution at all. The University would henceforth allow anyone who had passed its matriculation examination and had paid requisite fees to sit for its examinations. The University would no longer concern itself with whether its students had attended a recognized institution, had studied with a tutor, or had learned purely through self-directed studies (Bell & Tight, 1993). Like Newman's idealized community of learning, the external degree was driven by an ideological vision, as well as by practical considerations. The former was elitist, the latter egalitarian. Newman argued eloquently against the University of London examination system. He believed the collective experience to be the defining characteristic of a university:

If I had to choose between a so-called University, which dispensed with residence and tutorial superintendence, and gave its degrees to any person who passed an examinations in a wide range of subjects, and a University which had no professors or examinations at all, but merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years, and then sent them away... I have no hesitation in giving the preference to that University which did nothing, over that which exacted of its members an acquaintance with every science under the sun. (p. 163)

Newman was not alone. In hearings on the University of London's degree, the Reverend Canon Wescott said

I venture to hope that experience would show that the mode of learning is as important as the mere acquisition of knowledge, presentable at the point of examination. Therefore, I am sanguine enough to think that if the University of London is made a teaching University, its new experience will lead it to revert to the original principle of its foundation, and to recognize education under specified conditions is an essential requirement for its degree. (Allchin, 1905, p.120)

Apparently the popularity of the University of London's external degree, and its utility in serving the empire during the Industrial Revolution, ensured its survival, even in the face of elitist opposition. It also served as a precedent, if not a precise model, for external degree programs in Ireland, Scotland, and even the United States.

OPEN LEARNING ON THE OPEN PRAIRIE

Mr. Fallows Comes to Bloomington

The conflict between the elitist and egalitarian tendencies in the shaping of modern universities, as it had emerged in Great Britain, first became an issue in the United States in 1873, when President Samuel Fallows became president of Illinois Wesleyan University, a small, struggling, and cash starved Methodist Episcopal school. Fallows announced that Illinois Wesleyan would develop an "*in absentia*," or nonresidential, degree program, modeled after the University of London's external degree.

Fallows's experiment, and indeed the entire history of Illinois Wesleyan's external degree program, is described in an excellent 1984 University of Chicago dissertation by Henry Christopher Allan, Jr. Fallows's commitment to a better-educated clergy and to better teachers Allan contended, represented one justification of his plan to provide legitimate degrees to nonresident students. Illinois Wesleyan's chronically desperate finances provided another. A program that would bring in a new body of tuition-paying students, with virtually no additional overhead, had a resonance that would help overcome skepticism (Allan, 1984).

In some respects the nonresident degree program represented an elevation of standards. Illinois Wesleyan, along with many other American colleges, had long granted master's degrees *in cursu* to alumni who had earned baccalaureate degrees. Requirements for the *in cursu* master's varied, but generally they required only a three-year wait, and a small fee. The specified courses of study, systematic advising, and vigorous examinations of the *in absentia* program boosted the standards generally associated with graduate degrees at Iowa Wesleyan, and at many other small American colleges.

When announced in 1874, the program drew quick reactions, both *pro* and *con*. One prominent Methodist educator "indulged in a spasm of protest," bitterly denouncing the democratic nature of eligibility for the program (Fallows, 1927, p.250).

Fallows and his allies tried to reassure their fellow Methodists that they need have "no fears that this plan will cheapen degrees" (cited in Allan, p.80). Illinois Wesleyan administrators attempted to disassociate their programs from correspondence study, which was growing in both popularity and notoriety. As a format, correspondence study quickly inspired detractors as well as champions. Educators began to fear that use of the correspondence method would inevitably mean association with its shoddier practitioners. While Illinois Wesleyan appears to have made every effort to offer degree programs with content and rigor comparable to its on-campus instruction, some other schools did not. During the latter years of Illinois Wesleyan's nonresidential program, a new fly in the higher education ointment, the first diploma mills, arrived. Almost immediately they give a bad name not only to legitimate external degree programs, but to American higher education as a whole. In particular, two "schools" incorporated in Virginia in 1904; Potomac University and Oriental University, began papering the country with thousands of worthless degrees (Lykes, 1975). The furor over diploma mills could not have escaped the authorities of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

Innovators on the Run

When the University Senate of the Methodist Episcopal Church met in Baltimore in 1900, Illinois Wesleyan's undergraduate *in absentia* program, the Ph.B., was high on the agenda. The Senate passed a resolution that left no room for interpretation:

Resolved: That the minimum requirement for the baccalaureate degrees adopted by the University Senate contemplate in all cases study in residence under regular classroom instruction to the extent indicated in the said requirement. (cited in Allan,

Defiance was out of the question. The University Senate was the *de jure* accrediting agency of the Methodist Episcopal Church. It could not only pull the accreditation of member colleges, it could terminate their affiliation with the denomination.

The University Senate then targeted the nonresidential graduate degree programs of Illinois Wesleyan and the other Wesleyan colleges. A 1904 decree, revised in 1906, pronounced strict residential requirements for graduate degrees. As before, Illinois Wesleyan had no choice. In 1906, its Dean of Nonresidential Programs announced a timetable that would give students already enrolled until June 1910 to complete their work. No external degrees would be granted thereafter.

It has been noted that Illinois Wesleyan was not the only Methodist college that had awarded degrees for coursework performed *in absentia*. Eleven other Wesleyan institutions enacted some sort of nonresidential programs during the same period. However, Illinois Wesleyan's program was the largest, best organized, and by far the best known. By targeting it, the University Senate effectively ended the practice among denominational schools.

Wars and Rumors of Wars

There can be no doubt that the decrees and warnings of the University Senate presented the primary and decisive factors in Illinois Wesleyan's surrender of its nonresidential degree programs, other pressures came into play also. In 1905, President Edgar Smith reported to the Illinois Wesleyan trustees that New York "educational authorities" had decided that Illinois Wesleyan degrees would no longer be recognized in that state as long as the school continued to offer diplomas for nonresidential. Thus, not only would New York shun Illinois Wesleyan's external degrees, it would give no credence to its diplomas earned in residence. Smith warned the other states would undoubtedly adopt this standard:

It is my judgment that under these circumstances, the only honorable thing for this body (Board of Trustees) to do is to immediately and totally discontinue the matriculation of students for nonresident degrees. (cited in Allan, p. 296)

This news was ominous, of course, but its origin is unknown. Neither the General Education Board of New York nor the logical authority for such matters, the Regents of the University of the State of New York, left any record of such an action.

Thirty Thousand Pieces of Silver.

In 1906, the Carnegie Corporation made an initial offer to award \$30,000 to Illinois Wesleyan, whose Board of Trustees voted to attempt to raise \$60,000 in matching contributions. As the campaign got underway, James Bertram, an aide to Andrew Carnegie, expressed doubt that Illinois Wesleyan was worthy of such beneficence. Bertram admittedly possessed no first hand knowledge of the *in absentia* program, but nonetheless called it "some form of correspondence instruction," for which "no reputable" institution would confer degrees (cited in Allan, p.304). Authorities in the Methodist Church urged Wesleyan to accelerate its termination of the *in absentia* degree programs. In addition to provoking opposition from the Carnegie Corporation, they said, it made grants from the Rockefeller Foundation unlikely as well (Allan, 1984).

With accrediting agencies, its own denomination, out-of-state authorities, and the great philanthropies aligned against it, resistance was futile. Illinois Wesleyan completely phased out

all of its *in absentia* programs, on schedule, in 1910. The first major America experiment in collegiate distance education and open learning for adults had come to an end.

THE EVIL OF LESSERS

As noted above, Illinois Wesleyan University was not the only established resident college that offered graduate or undergraduate degrees for nonresident study. A number of other schools experimented with *in absentia* study during the period from 1873 through 1910. Because of poor, ambiguous, or simply missing records, it is impossible to say precisely how many made the attempt. And even for those whose existence is known to a certainty, the scope and intensity of their efforts varied greatly.

According to a U. S. Office of Education survey (1900), 48 institutions in the United States awarded graduate degrees in academic year 1898-1899; seventeen allowed *in absentia* study. Fifteen were affiliated with Protestant denominations, 11 with the Methodist Church. They ranged from large, established schools, like Boston and Syracuse universities, to small institutions, such as Taylor University and Moore's Hill College. Several used nonresident study as a means of ending the practice of awarding *in cursu* graduate degrees. Lebanon Valley College (Pennsylvania), Dickinson College (Pennsylvania), and Wofford College (South Carolina) added requirements for either passage of examinations, submission of a thesis, or both, for their students who wished to obtain a master's degree. In such cases, formal *in absentia* study represented the imposition of significantly higher standards.

Wooster College, in Ohio, offered the external degree program that most resembled that of Illinois Wesleyan. Then Otterbine University, a United Brethren school, copied the Wooster program so closely that it used exactly the same language in its catalogue.

The colleges that offered external degree programs shared several features. Most were affiliated with religious denominations, especially the Methodist Church. The greatest number offered only graduate programs. Many seemed mainly interested in serving their alumni. Most eventually ceased offering not only external degrees, but also all advanced degrees, as graduate programs increasingly became the provenance of large public and private universities in the early twentieth century.

As correspondence study became increasingly controversial, as accrediting associations, philanthropies, and denominational authorities began to discourage external programs, and as small colleges dropped graduate programs, virtually all residential colleges base dropped nonresident study. Only the diploma mills remained.

A HORSE OF ANOTHER HUE

One more external degree program—quite different from those noted to this point—deserves mention. The Chautauqua movement occupies a major place in the history of adult education in the United States. Thus, the story of Bishop John Heyl Vincent and Lewis Miller's founding of the Chautauqua Assembly in 1873 as a kind of summer educational retreat for middle-class Methodists is well known. However, the Chautauqua movement's most ambitious and innovative achievement has received little scholarly attention. From 1881 through 1898, Chautauqua operated formal, nonresidential degree programs, chartered by the New York legislature. This chapter of the Chautauqua movement's history has received very little attention. The only work that does it justice is Richard Bonnell's 1988 Kent State University dissertation, *The Chautauqua University: Pioneer University Without Walls, 1883-1898*.

During the 1890's the Chautauqua Assembly's interest in maintaining its university began to waver. The generation that had created the nonresidential degree had moved on. The low numbers of graduates was also a factor. Probably more important, however, was the Methodist Episcopal Church Senate's growing hostility to external degrees, as noted above. While Chautauqua was not a Methodist institution, *per se*, its chancellor and most of its trustees were either officers or members of the denomination, as were many of its students. Chautauqua University voluntarily relinquished its charter, and therefore its authority to confer degrees, in 1898.

In terms of the number of degrees awarded, Chautauqua University's impact might seem insignificant. From 1881, when its school of Theology began offering degree programs, until 1898, when it surrendered its charter, Chautauqua awarded only 21 degrees: one Ph.D., two AS's one BS, and seventeen DD's. Bonnell (1988) argues that the small number of degrees issued should not be taken as a measure of Chautauqua University's success or its importance in American higher education. A better measure would be its headcount. According to Bonnell's best calculation, which he called conservative, 8,130 adults participated in course work for academic credit. Equally important (if not more so) is its place in the history of both adult education and higher education in the United States:

Chautauqua University was among the first, if not the first, American University to openly encourage, by stated mission, purpose, and printed prospectors, the out-of-school, non-degree, working adult learner, and openly discourage the "regular" student who could attend any conventional institution. (p.315)

In this sense, Chautauqua University had considerable impact.

DÉJÀ VU ALL OVER AGAIN

Neither distance education nor collegiate-level open learning was invented yesterday, nor even in the 1970s, despite what some of their champions would have us believe. They had antecedents, particularly in the late nineteenth century. All of the justifications and needs that led to the great interest in external degrees in the 1970s, existed in the 1870s. Indeed, given the greater geographic isolation and the dearth of institutions committed to serving adult students, one can argue that the need for the external degree was greater then than it is now.

The opponents of open learning with whom we are all too familiar also had ancestors. Academic snobbery is not new; nor is fear of economic competition on the part of established colleges a recent development. Calls for "more research" and the defense of "standards," usually based only on intuition, have always been with us. The identification of quality with methodology is as old as human nature. Today's professionals in distance learning, external degree programs, and adult education are moving into new territory. But the way is not entirely unknown. People who took risks and endured sniping, skeptics, and even ridicule preceded us. We owe them a great deal.

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Faculty as Adult Learners: A Case Study of a System of Professional Development and Evaluation for Adjunct Faculty

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Many adult degree programs base their success to some extent on the teaching performance of part-time adjunct faculty. In 1996 Cindy Scarlett and Sandie Turner presented "Performance Management System for Adjunct Faculty" at the Alliance conference. The system presented involved the processes of selecting, orienting, developing and evaluating adjunct faculty in the programs Cindy and Sandie were involved with. In the current presentation the two authors wish to revisit the question of developing adjunct faculty.

Sandie is a full-time member of the faculty at Carlow College and Director of the Professional Leadership Master's program and Coralyn McCauley is adjunct assistant professor in that program as well as adjunct at other area colleges. Involved in the Professional Leadership Master's program are 2 full-time faculty, 3 other full time faculty whose time is primarily committed to other programs, but who teach in the PRL program once or twice each year, and 10 adjuncts who have now taught in the program for several years. The selection and orientation phases of developing adjunct faculty have been dealt with to some extent, though we have not practiced all the suggestions in the 1996 model. We would like in this presentation to look at the question of continuing development and evaluation of "seasoned" adjunct faculty. We wish to build our faculty group into a learning team, a critical part of a learning organization.

OUR QUESTIONS: Development and Evaluation

As we began thinking about this topic and what our group of faculty (full-time and adjunct) has been doing in our 4 or 5 meetings a year since this program began in 1995, we decided there were two issues we needed to clarify. One was that we felt that while our faculty group had talked quite a bit about adult learning principles and active learning class sessions and done some reading on these subjects, we were not sure the faculty knowledge base on these subjects was very deep. We knew from our own experience that when we are stressed or don't have quite enough time to prepare for class we are likely to fall back on more habitual didactic teaching and our familiar faculty role of being "the expert" in the room. Because the curriculum of our program is organized under the concept of leadership we feel very strongly that the faculty must "walk the talk" of building sound relationships with students, of practicing collaborative learning and working and so on, i.e., the areas where we believe leadership skills and adult learning principles converge.

Though we believe our faculty is very skilled at facilitation, we wanted to deepen knowledge of how to consistently plan class time and assignments so the students are really involved in collegial and active learning and we are consistent role models of collegial and active learners ourselves. Our vision is to make the values and methods of adult learning second nature to our faculty so that these methods withstand the time pressures of accelerated eight-week terms and potential undermining by our concurrent experiences in other colleges and institutions that neither value nor practice them.

The second issue was to clarify whether we were building a better system in order to do evaluation in the performance review sense or in order to promote the development of our faculty as facilitators of adult learning or both. Sometimes an institution can craft a "developmental" evaluation plan that in fact is a disguised plan to weed out faculty who have become dispensable for some reason. Since adjuncts can easily not be rehired—they have no long-term contract at Carlow—we did not want to have an implicit agenda or encourage the perception of an implicit agenda. Therefore, we had to examine our motives and goals very carefully. How could we use faculty development and evaluation activities to build ourselves into a better team of learners, the expectation we have for our students. As Senge (1990) and others point out when discussing the requirements of building a learning organization, there must be room for trying out new things, taking risks, having some failures, as we try to become a better learning team and thus better facilitators of learning for our students. How to incorporate opportunities for trying and risking so that faculty feel safe to try and then to discuss learning from failures as well as successes with other faculty is the dilemma. We have done some of this in the past, but we wanted to intentionally create such an atmosphere so more creativity and learning could occur among full-time and adjunct faculty alike. We believe this will help our faculty feel more comfortable about giving students such opportunities also.

FACULTY EVALUATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AT THE COLLEGE: self-assessment, peer evaluation, student opinion surveys

The full-time faculty at Carlow is in the process of redesigning the faculty evaluation system to make it more developmental and less punitive or irrelevant. The system developed will consist of 3 aspects: faculty doing self-assessment in yearly reports and goal-setting; faculty helping one another with peer evaluation—visiting one another's classes upon invitation; and student opinion surveys which have been rewritten and will be tallied by a Scantron system. Initially, as we tried to create a more intentionally developmental system to work with our full-time and adjunct faculty in the Professional Leadership program we considered having peers visit our classes. Upon further thought we decided that there would be no reason for adjunct faculty to say something negative about another faculty member. Thus, this felt too time-consuming(given what adjunct faculty are paid) and counter-productive for an initial phase of a developmental program. The new student opinion survey, on the other hand, should be a helpful piece for our

Professional Leadership faculty. The Program Director will be able to converse with faculty in a more timely manner now that we will have the Scantron tallies of opinion surveys more quickly. The question that can be posed to faculty as we look at the student opinion surveys will be "What do you learn from these numbers?". Perhaps each faculty member would have a face-to-face meeting with the Director once a year (or more often by request). These could be on a regular schedule (some in Fall, some in Spring) so meetings are not only set up when there is a problem. This would enhance the developmental rather than punitive aspects of such meetings.

THE PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM FACULTY MEETINGS

The pivotal aspect of developing our Professional Leadership faculty into even better and more consistent facilitators of adult learners will be using our meetings to deepen their powers of risk-taking and self-assessment around adult learning principles. In the process we hope to build a learning organization by continually expanding our capacity to create the realities we seek (Senge, 1990). Faculty development becomes a means by which to practice the disciplines of personal mastery, team learning and shared vision. Thus, we see professional development and evaluation as an integrated effort toward dual goals of increasing expertise in adult learning theory and practice as well as organization development that strengthens the program as a learning organization.

The objectives for the revamping of our Professional Leadership faculty development meetings for 2001-2002 will be the following:

- 1)to build the faculty into a stronger learning group (faculty as adult learners) based on shared vision and philosophy
- 2)to deepen the faculty knowledge of how to be a skillful teacher (Brookfield, 1990) of adult learners so that even when feeling stressed, faculty consistently act upon adult learning principles
- 3)to increase opportunities for faculty to practice theory and application in regard to their facilitation of adult learning
- 4)to develop a self-assessment system that lives on its own, does not require one person (the Director) to make it happen

DESIGN OF THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

At our first faculty meeting, September 12, we wish to begin designing a process as a whole faculty that will meet objectives 1 through 3 above. In adult learning theory the process of establishing learning relationships begins with setting a climate of mutual respect, collaboration, trust in each other and in the motives of the organization, support, openness and authenticity (Knowles, 1995). While such a climate has been developed among program faculty over the years, it must be recreated continuously. An andragogic process model assumes that people are committed to any decision or plan in proportion to the extent to which they have

participated in developing it. Learners share the responsibility for planning learning activities. Clearly, these fundamentals must be practiced in the design of the professional development process if it is to model and reinforce the adult learning approach desired for the classroom. The professional development effort requires a flexible structure or process plan, i.e., a set of procedures for involving learners in determining the content of their study (Knowles, 1995). Such a plan provides the framework for self-directed learning, reflection on and articulation of learning goals that foster personal mastery, and the development of shared vision that supports organizational learning. The process plan that we have developed for the first meeting is based on Jane Vella's (1994a;2000) Seven Steps of Planning incorporating learning tasks designed to develop shared vision of the teaching-learning relationship and to identify learning topics for the rest of the year's faculty meetings. Students in our Master's program read about and practice her process in the course titled "Adult Learning and Diversity." Our faculty has read excerpts, but using her process to facilitate learning would help all of us deepen our knowledge of one process which builds on the writings and teachings of Knowles and Friere (Vella, 1994a). In the plan below we refer to Conrad who has written about 3 models of relationship between teachers and learners (Conrad, 1993). We will use this reference for part of our discussion. We have described the process for the first Fall meeting of our faculty in some detail to demonstrate the Vella method.

VELLA'S SEVEN STEPS OF PLANNING FOR SEPTEMBER 12 Professional Leadership Faculty Meeting

- 1). Who (participants): The Professional Leadership faculty—12 to 14 adults (primarily women) who teach in the Professional Leadership graduate program
- 2). Why : We want to create an intentional process based on adult learning theory to practice adult learning principles and to develop our faculty as a learning organization.
- 3). When (time frame): September 12, 2001 from 2 PM to 4 PM; two hours
- 4). Where (site): Carlow College: conference room
- 5). What (content: knowledge, skills, attitudes):
 - models of teaching-learning relationships
 - vision of teaching-learning relationships in program
 - adult learner motivation
- 6). What for (achievement-based objectives): by the end of this 2 hours, all participants will have:
 - Articulated why they come to these meetings and related their answers to why our students come to class
 - Distinguished among 3 identified teaching -learning relationship structures: individualistic, facilitative, dialogical
 - Clarified which teaching -learning relationship they practice in the classroom
 - Defined which teaching -learning relationship they believe is the norm for this program at this time

- Stated which teaching learning relationship they believe should be the norm (the vision) for this program
- Examined the gap (if any) between their practice and the vision we hold as a program faculty
- Listed what we wish to learn/practice/deepen skills of at these meetings this year in order to close the gap

7). How (Learning tasks and materials):

Learning task 1: Welcome, food, overview

Learning task 2: Why do I come to these meetings?

- Share with a partner your answer to the mailed-out question "Why do I come to these meetings?"
- Write your answers on cards and post on wall
- The whole group reviews cards and groups those that are similar. Person who wrote it must agree to grouping
- As a whole group consider--If we asked our students why they come to class , would they say similar or different things
- What does this suggest regarding motivations of adult learners
- What does this suggest regarding the similarities/differences between students and faculty in our program

Learning task 3: Conrad's models of teaching-learning relationships

- Distribute models of teaching-learning relationship
- By yourself determine the teaching-learning relationship you use in class and prefer
- Discuss in triads their individual answers and then their group idea of what the norm for the program is at this time
- Post group decision of model practiced in the program at this time
- Discuss as whole group
- In triads formulate your vision of the teaching-learning model this program should be implementing
- Post triad results and discuss as whole group
- Can we reach a consensus today?

Learning task 4: Our practice related to our vision?

- Examine the gap between practice and vision: for us as individuals and for the program as a whole
- In triads identify knowledge, skills, competencies needed to close the gap between present practice and vision and post
- Discuss as a group
- Prioritize items as subjects for faculty meetings
- Volunteer to facilitate learning on a subject (facilitate what you need or want to learn)

We anticipate that the outcome of the September meeting will be the beginning of a plan and a process for our group learning and professional development during this next academic year. Depending upon articulated learning needs of the group,

additional features of the development effort may include articulation of personal teaching-learning philosophies (Brookfield, 1990), self-diagnosis and development of personal learning plans (Knowles, 1995), and learning partnerships formed for peer support and consultation. We hope the first meeting will lay the foundation for designing together in meetings to come an assessment and development system. We may also develop an on-line discussion forum to support continued dialogue about our experiences and questions as we strive to expand our andragogic practices in our classrooms. Throughout our efforts we hope to maintain a passion for becoming a learning organization committed to the adult learners in our lives including ourselves. We will report to you in October how the September meeting went and the reaction of faculty.

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Factors Influencing Nonparticipation of African-American Male Inmates in Correctional Education Programs

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The United States has experienced a considerable rise in its prison population during the last quarter of the twentieth century (Donziger, 1996; Mauer, 1999; Schlosser, 1998). Between 1985 and 1995 state and federal governments on average opened a new prison facility weekly to manage the continuing increase of new prisoners (Mauer, 1999). Near the end of the twentieth century, the US prison population was approximately 1.8 million adults (Mauer, 1999; Schlosser, 1998). This figure represents approximately 1.1 million prisoners in state facilities, 135,000 in federal facilities and 550,000 in local jails (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998; Mauer, 1999; Scholosser, 1998). The US incarcerates its citizens at six to ten times the rate of most industrialized nations and is surpassed only by Russia in per capita incarceration (Mauer, 1999).

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (1999), Texas has the highest per capita incarceration rate among states at 700 people per 100,000 adults for a total of 143,299 inmates (Criminal Justice Policy Council, 1999a). Inmates serving terms for non-violent property and drug related offenses represent the majority of the Texas prison population at 46.6 percent (Criminal Justice Policy Council 1999a).

African-American males constitute the majority, about 50%, of the US prison population. However, African-Americans represent only 12% of the total US population. The US Department of Justice (1997) projects that 5.1% of the US population would serve time in prison. This same report projects African-American males as having a 29% likelihood of imprisonment compared to 16% for Hispanics , 4.4% for whites and 9% for all males (Mauer, 1999).

Prisoner Education Level

The National Adult Literacy Survey found that 7 out of 10 inmates score within the two lowest literacy levels of five possible levels. Levels one and two proficiency translate into the possession of some reading and writing skills. However, many inmates are unable to write a letter explaining an error on a credit card statement or to understand a bus schedule (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991). When comparing prison literacy levels to the levels in the general population of US citizens, inmate illiteracy is estimated to be three times higher than that of the general population (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991). Factoring in that many inmates matriculated through poor public school systems, the low-literacy problem is exacerbated (Newman, Lewis & Beverstock, 1993). According to Eisenberg (2000), 33 percent of all Texas inmates are functionally illiterate. Furthermore, a significant portion of Texas inmates have not completed 12 years of education. In 1998, only 31 percent of the Texas prison population had a high school diploma. More specifically, 21.6 percent had completed less than 9th grade and 47.9 had completed between 9th and 11th grade (Eisenberg, 2000). The high school dropout rate for incarcerated African-American males is higher than that of the

general US population (Gibbs, 1988; Newman et al. 1993).

Prisoner Participation in Correctional Education Programs

The majority of state and county facilities do not mandate participation in a correctional education program (Kerka, 1995). The state of Texas does not mandate participation in its correctional education programs (Eisenberg, 2000). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1994), only 60% of the US prison population reports participating in educational programming while incarcerated. In 1998 the Windham School District, provider of educational programs for Texas incarcerated offenders, reported only 39% of eligible inmates participated in correctional education programs (Eisenberg, 2000). Furthermore, a common characteristic of a recidivist is nonparticipation in correctional education programs while incarcerated (Jancic, 1998; Schumaker, Anderson, D. & Anderson, L., 1990).

Theoretical Framework

The impetus for inquiry regarding nonparticipation in adult learning was based upon research published by Cyril O. Houle in 1961. Houle investigated adult motivation to engage in various continuous learning activities. Through in-depth interviews with twenty adults, Houle inquired into their previous learning experiences and their perceptions of themselves as learners (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). From this data Houle identified three learning orientations that motivate adults to engage in learning activities. First, goal-oriented learners engage in education to accomplish a specific goal. Second, activity-oriented learners engage in learning as an activity and the opportunity for interaction with other people. Third, learning-oriented learners engage in learning specifically for the knowledge. This research has led to other studies seeking to validate or reshape the original learning orientations established by Houle.

The first U.S. national study on nonparticipation was conducted by Johnstone and Rivera in 1965 (Beder, 1991). Their research which built on the typology of Houle (1961), investigated barriers to participation in self-directed learning activities (Beder, 1991, Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). The results of their study generated two categories of barriers to participation. The first were those barriers external to the individual or beyond the person's control. The second were those barriers internal to the individual and grounded in the person's attitude toward learning. External barriers were termed situational barriers. Internal barriers were termed dispositional barriers. Johnstone and Rivera (1965) investigated the relationship between the identified barriers and the sociodemographics of participants. Their findings showed women and younger participants identified more situational barriers such as fatigue and costs while older participants cited more dispositional barriers such as feeling they were too old to learn. Participants of low socioeconomic backgrounds cited both situational and dispositional factors and lack of information as barriers. The Johnstone and Rivera (1965) study provided the first framework for investigating nonparticipation in adult literacy programs. Recommendations from this study encourage further study of the barriers for nonparticipation of adult literacy populations, in this case, specifically focusing on gender and race (Beder, 1991).

In 1972, building on the research of Johnstone and Rivera (1965), Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (Cross & Valley, 1974) conducted a study on nonparticipation using a survey with a list of 25 barriers (Beder, 1991). The results of the study indicated for the majority were predominantly situational barriers such as cost and lack of time while only 16% of participants cited lack of information as a barrier. Carp et al. also investigated the relationship between barriers and sociodemographics. The results showed men cited work-related issues and lack of time while women cited home-related issues and fatigue as barriers to participation. Cost was a barrier for participants under the age of 35 (Beder, 1991).

When looking at race, the researchers found that Caucasians identified lack of time and home-related issues at twice the rate of African-Americans. African-Americans identified predominantly situational barriers such as low academic scores, being unable to meet requirements, being unable to afford, lack of child care and lack of transportation (Beder, 1991). Monetary constraints were a significant barrier for African-Americans and younger adults. Carp et al. reported that reasons for nonparticipation varied by personal commitments and affect toward learning which are different based upon race, socioeconomic status and gender (Beder, 1991).

Cross (1981) expanded the framework of categories for nonparticipation by adding institutional barriers (Beder, 1991). Institutional barriers are defined as "practices and procedures that exclude or discourage working adults from participating in educational activities" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). By adding institutional barriers, Cross recognized the role that education programs play in deterring participation (i.e., class schedules, information and, program policies) (Beder, 1991). Cross cite situational barriers as being the most significant with monetary constraints and lack of time emerging most often. According to Cross, dispositional barriers are the least significant of the three categories but may be minimized by the self-report nature of the research methodologies (Beder, 1991).

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) further expanded on the framework of categories used to classify reasons for nonparticipation. Their definitions for situational and institutional are consistent with previous research. However, they expanded the framework to include informational barriers and redefine the dispositional category as psychosocial.

Psychosocial barriers are divided into two sub-categories. Category A "encompasses negative evaluations of the usefulness, appropriateness and pleasurability of engaging in adult education, particularly for lower and working class persons" (Beder, 1991, p.71). Category B "includes adults' negative evaluations of themselves as learners [i.e., fear of failure and low self efficacy]" (Beder, 1991, p.72). While Category B psychosocial barriers are less associated with socioeconomic status than Category A barriers (Beder, 1991), "they are nonetheless prevalent among disadvantaged and working-class adults" (Beder, 1991, p. 72).

The addition of informational barriers is based upon the research of Johnstone and Rivera (1962) which showed that one-third of all participants did not have any knowledge of the educational offerings in their area. Furthermore, one-fourth of the participants did "not know where to go or whom to ask to get information about learning opportunities" (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 138). According to this study, 85% of the participants with a high socioeconomic status in urban areas reported knowledge of "at least one place where adults could receive instruction whereas the comparable figure for persons of low socioeconomic status in small towns or rural areas was 19 percent." (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p.138). For disadvantaged adults, lack of knowledge about available education offerings is projected to remain a significant barrier to participation (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982).

Research Questions

The purpose of this exploratory case study was to identify barriers that may influence nonparticipation of African-American male inmates in correctional education programs. The study design sought to answer the central research question and four supporting research questions. The central research question asked "What are the factors that influence nonparticipation of African-American male inmates in Adult Basic Education (ABE) or Adult Secondary Education (ASE)?

The four supporting research questions asked:

1. What are situational barriers that influence nonparticipation?
2. What are psychosocial barriers that influence nonparticipation?
3. What are institutional barriers that influence nonparticipation?
4. What are informational barriers that influence nonparticipation?

Procedures

After a lengthy process to gain approval from correctional officials to conduct the research study, a small pilot was conducted with inmates currently enrolled in correctional education programs. The pilot provided an opportunity to make several changes to the wording, organization of questions and procedures.

Phase 1 of this exploratory case study involved completing a 30-question survey. Survey responses were reviewed and possible interview participants were identified for phase 2 of the research. The survey instrument was based upon previously conducted research studies. Participants were asked to answer questions to determine how closely they represented the demographics of the US prisoner and the recidivist profile. Survey questions also addressed situational, institutional and informational barriers. A total of 40 African-American males agreed to participate in Phase 1 of the research.

Phase 2 involved a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions addressing the four supporting research questions. Interview lengths ranged from 60-120 minutes. All interviews were taped and transcribed. Of the 40 survey respondents from Phase 1 of the study, 14 were high school dropouts and therefore eligible for interviews in phase 2. Of the 14 eligible participants, 7 interviews were completed. Whenever possible, follow-up interviews were conducted with each participant in order to review the interview transcript. The follow-up interview was an opportunity to have responses clarified or questions answered more fully.

Results

Research Question 1 What are situational barriers that influence nonparticipation?

According to the literature, situational barriers can be a major deterrent to participation in adult education classes (Cross, 1981; Sticht, 1998). However, the results of this study do now show situational barriers as a deterrent to participation for this incarcerated population. Survey questions asked about conflicts with jail employment assignments and the cost of educational classes. Survey responses showed none of the respondents currently hold jail employment assignments or have conflicts with other jail rehabilitation programs such as drug and alcohol treatment programs. All respondents indicate that they would not incur any cost for ABE or ASE programs.

Research Question 2 "What psycho-social barriers influence nonparticipation?

ABE or ASE students are traditionally viewed as students with low self-esteem and low self-efficacy based upon previous school failure. Furthermore, ABE or ASE students are said not to value education. The results of the interviews with participants did not reveal this. 100% of study participants self-reported high self-efficacy as it relates to their ability to learn and perform. One participant that stated that he was "slow" in learning still spoke very highly of his abilities to learn and apply information if an instructor was willing to take the time necessary to

teach him. While one participant self-reported high belief in his abilities to learn, he did not readily see any benefits to correctional education at the time of the interview.

Research Question 3 "What institutional barriers influence nonparticipation?

Institutional barriers are those practices and procedures that deter adults from participating in education classes. Interview participants were very vocal about the type of instructional program needed for them to attend and stay motivated to learn. Many of the interview processes addressed teaching and learning practices including active/cooperative learning strategies. Some interview participants had attended classes during previous incarcerations but stopped attending citing the quality of instruction as the reason for withdrawal from the program. Five of the seven interview participants stated that they formally requested, in some cases multiple times, to attend classes but either never heard back from the education coordinator or were placed on a waiting list. 97% of survey respondents stated that they had never been contacted or received information about attending correctional education classes. One respondent stated they saw a poster. After further inquiry, the poster was not in a housing unit but was the sign on the door outside of the education office that said "education office".

Research Question 4 "What informational barriers influence nonparticipation?

Based upon the survey responses and interviews lack of information about education programs was the most prevalent barrier influencing nonparticipation. Survey respondents and interview participants were not aware of the numerous types of educational programs available in the facility. When asked, "How did you learn about the types of education programs offered?" a large majority of respondents cited other inmates as the major source of information about programs and the procedures for registering for classes. Participants discussed the difficulty they experienced in trying to obtain information. Often the only alternate source for information was correctional officers. Due to the frequency that informational barriers were mentioned, the researcher made inquiries to correctional officers to determine how prevalent of a problem this may be in the facility. A poll of 5 correctional officers yielded inconsistency in staff knowledge on available programs, procedures and contact persons for educational services.

Implications and Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this exploratory case study reveal that institutional and informational barriers as the most prevalent deterrent to participation in correctional education programs. African-American males discussed a desire to have knowledgeable instructors and a learning environment that uses multiple instructional strategies including active and cooperative learning. Although incarcerated African-American males overall expressed a belief in the importance and value of education, access to education program information must be made available. Recommendations for future research include replicating this study with a much larger population of incarcerated African-American males and expanding this study to other incarcerated ethnic groups and female prisoners.

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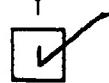
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